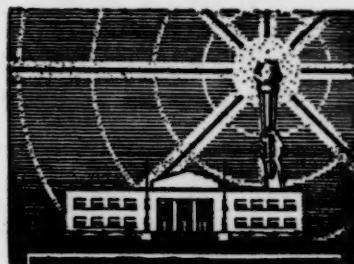


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# The Social Studies

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## Contents

As the Editor Sees It	122
Social Criticism and the New Social Science	<i>T. D. Odle</i> 123
A Plea for Improved Writing in the Social Sciences	<i>A. H. Doerr</i> 127
Anti-Americanism Abroad: The Indonesian Case	<i>J. M. van der Kroef</i> 135
The Original Plan of Maryland's First Integrated School	<i>W. H. Shannon</i> 140
Pupils Have Purposes Too	<i>E. Hightower</i> 144
The Teachers' Page	<i>Hyman M. Boodish</i> 146
Visual and Other Aids	<i>Irwin Eckhauser</i> 151
Book Reviews and Book Notes	<i>David W. Harr</i> 153
Current Publications Received	160

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## As the Editor Sees It

*The Wall Street Journal* recently ran an article about the dismay of school and city officials in New York, Philadelphia and elsewhere as they surveyed the probable cost of proposals for special facilities to deal with juvenile delinquents. The growth of gangsterism in the schools themselves had become so great that even New York had to resort to wholesale expulsions despite the fact that no other institution was prepared to deal with the delinquents either. The officials of the great cities are faced with several unpleasant alternatives: to increase school budgets to provide special schools for delinquents, thus taking school monies from normal educational purposes; to increase municipal taxes to provide the necessary institutions and treatment to handle delinquents outside the school system; or to let these young terrorists roam the streets and increase the crime wave, which also costs money.

There is no denying the fact that a significant part of the cost of public education in large cities is being spent on boys and girls who are deriving no noticeable benefit from the expenditure. They are wards of the school because of compulsory education laws and the absence of any other agency or facility sufficiently well equipped to ride herd on them. Some are real criminals, some minor delinquents and many merely slow learners whose interest in school ended before the law said it should.

There are many people who sincerely feel

that it is not the proper business of the public school system to provide for these; rather that it is the school's function to educate as long as its efforts are effective, but that it is the duty of other social agencies to help, or restrain, or treat, those whom the schools can no longer benefit. They believe this for several reasons. In the first place, they feel that the kinds of education that are of value to the normal majority lose that value much sooner for the problem minority, and it is harmful and wasteful to continue to force the latter into the mold. Secondly, if the minority requires special handling rather than schooling, this should be done outside the regular school system, especially in the case of delinquents. For we do education a disservice if it is compelled to bear the responsibility and cost of supporting what is properly a function of the police arm of the municipality. The public gets a false impression of the costliness of education, and of its effectiveness; this in turn may reduce the public's faith in and support of education as a whole.

There is no question that the problem minority produced by our social conditions today represents a tremendous cost that must be paid for. But it is highly questionable whether that cost should be charged to the educational bill; for the social functions involved are not educational so much as they are psychological, penal or industrial. Other arms of government, with tax resources, exist to carry out these functions if they will only accept the responsibility.



## Social Criticism and the New Social Science

THOMAS D. ODLE

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Anthropology, sociology, psychology and psychiatry have drawn closer together in recent years. Workers in those fields have been brought together by their common emphasis upon the importance of the emotional aspect of man's nature, and by the role they share as critics of society.

Workers in those field have become convinced that the prevalence of mental and social disorders in modern society is related to the emotional shortcomings of the industrial way of life. The social scientists seem to be fast becoming the modern day successors of such earlier social critics as John Ruskin, William Morris, H. G. Wells and George Bernard Shaw. There are marked differences between the older Socialistic criticism of industrialism and the newer social science one, however. Elliott and Merrill's *Social Disorganization* (1950) is representative of the newer criticism.

The earlier critics of industrial society emphasized the need for the establishment of cooperatives or the state ownership of essential industries. Their criticism was directed primarily at economic abuses, which no longer are so serious. The wages, hours of labor, and working conditions of factory employees are now vastly improved. The modern social science critics of industrialism are concerned with the emotional shortcomings of the industrial way of life, and they suggest that certain remedies are needed to alleviate the problems which arise from this way of life. The Socialist critics continue to hold that capitalism is a major source of the evils of our society, and that changes of an economic nature will bring

about a better way of life. The new critics do not blame capitalism. They urge instead that modern society be better adjusted to satisfy men's feelings. Their position is that most of us would not automatically find happiness in an economic Utopia. They believe that most of us need a "sense of belonging" and "emotional security" if we are to be contented. Socialism appears to be ebbing in popularity, and it is possible that the ideology of this new social science criticism of the industrial way of life will be its successor.

The new social science criticism uses the older Socialistic criticisms as well as a number of new ones. Its unique character lies in the fact that these heterogeneous criticisms are woven together into a unified whole by emphasizing that man's behavior is strongly influenced by his desire to gratify his emotions. The shortcomings of industrialism are thus seen to be related in that they work together to thwart man's emotional needs. The social scientists point out that the satisfaction of man's emotional needs is channeled into particular modes of behavior beginning in early childhood. These critics of society speak of this channeling as the process of socialization. This process is a very essential one, for as a result of it the members of a particular culture tend to possess many features of personality in common and agree among themselves. Extremely serious problems arise for individuals and societies, consequently, when the process of socialization of the individual is impaired, or when the mode of life of the society is such that many individuals are not able to satisfy their emotional needs. The social scientists

warn that both these impairments are found on a truly alarming scale in industrial societies.

The frustration individuals suffer from the shortcomings of the industrial way of life makes them vulnerable to many ills. Presumably a lowering of one's emotional well-being over a considerable period of time reduces one's resistance to emotional ills, as similarly a reduction of one's physical well-being lowers resistance to physical ill. But the matter is more complex than this, for there appears to be an interrelationship between one's emotional and physical well-being. Prolonged emotional disturbances are likely to give rise to physical symptoms, just as physical illness may produce emotional misery. Because of this relationship the lack of exercise characteristic of the industrial way of life constitutes a serious drawback of modern society. Exercise tends to promote physical and thus emotional well-being.

Frustration of the feelings has many effects. Physicians report that their patients often suffer from poorly defined ills which seem to be of emotional origin. The tendency to overeat is said to be of this nature. The social scientists in their critique of the industrial way of life charge that similar forces of an emotional nature are largely responsible for such disorders of behavior as alcoholism, divorce, desertion, suicide, crime, drug addiction, juvenile delinquency, and mental illness. In industrial societies these disorders have reached epidemic proportions.

Frustration of the feelings stems partly from the weakened bonds of the family. We must be careful not to idealize the past, but not too many generations ago the American family, for example, was commonly a little society which was almost complete in itself. It functioned as an economic unit in which most of the members of the group took part. It provided religious instruction, education and recreation.

Now, however, the conditions have changed. A rapid alteration has taken place in our way of life. No longer is American society predominantly agricultural and even

rural in nature. Instead it is industrial and urban, and the typical American family is resident in a city. The father goes away from home to work, and he may find much of his recreation outside the home. The mother may hold a job. She has a number of labor-saving devices which simplify her housework, and she probably belongs to several organizations which provide her with recreation. The children receive their religious instruction, if any, and their education away from home. For recreation they look to their friends in the neighborhood and at school rather than to their family. There are genuine bonds of affection which bind together the members of the modern family, but it is doubtful if these bonds are as strong as those which bound the family together under the older conditions of life.

The new industrial way of life has resulted in better material conditions for the family, but the loosening of the bonds of comradeship which once bound its members so closely together has been a serious loss. Most individuals, according to social scientists, feel much better emotionally if they can identify themselves closely with an intimate group. In addition the process of the socialization of the children proceeds much more smoothly when the primary models for behavior are the members of the family, as was the case under the older conditions of life. Confusion may set in when the child is confronted with many models of behavior which he may copy.

An industrial society is thus a difficult one in which to grow up. The social scientists furthermore charge that it is a difficult one in which to enjoy oneself while making a living. The methods of mass production have reduced back-breaking labor, made more goods available and cheapened their cost, but there is ample evidence that the division of labor has not made the producers of the goods happier at their tasks. Many workers feel frustrated and direct their anger against their employers, while often the reason for their unhappiness is that they do not feel emotionally involved in their work. The pride of accomplishment and craftsmanship is frequently missing. The

worker is producing for an unseen and unknown market. To a considerable degree the state of mind of the worker in mass production industries is shared by other members of the modern industrial community. The numbing effects of the division of labor are widespread.

The weakened bonds of the family and the nature of urban and factory life have spawned the problem of emotional loneliness. It has long been accepted that most individuals are gregarious, that is, that they like the company of their fellows. But according to social scientists the importance of companionship is much greater than most of us have imagined. The social scientists teach that most individuals need the company of their fellows and are desperately unhappy if they are deprived of it. The practice of solitary confinement in prisons is a cruel recognition of this truth. The social scientists argue that most individuals are self assured and feel important only when they know that they belong and are fully accepted as a member of an intimate group. The adolescent who belongs to a gang enjoys this satisfaction. This same force is at work in the therapy of Alcoholics Anonymous. That organization owes much of its effectiveness to the emotional value of group membership. In an industrial society it is often difficult for an individual to feel fully the satisfaction of membership in a face to face group. This problem is accentuated by what is known as social mobility. Movement from one town to another or from one neighborhood to another is very common in an industrialized society. One who moves about is unable to enjoy the satisfaction of identification with a group.

The anxiety which arises from the competition for social and economic status is another of the emotional shortcomings of the industrial way of life. Position or rank in an industrial culture must be achieved in most cases. An ascribed or fixed social status system is not compatible with the industrial way of life. The United States early developed a status system based upon achievement because of the influence of the

frontier conditions on the North American continent. Europeans have been slower in developing this system. The desire to rise in status has helped to make the American economy one of the most productive in the world. It has also been responsible for the unpleasant and often unnecessary bustle and turmoil of American life. The struggle for status exacts a serious emotional toll. Those who lack an assured status are likely to feel insecure and desperately unhappy. Even those who have risen in status are uncertain of their position and do not feel contented. One of the major problems of an industrial society is to provide individuals with satisfactory status and yet maintain productivity at a high level.

The basic problem which is responsible for most of the shortcomings of the industrial way of life is that society has been changing too rapidly. If change had occurred more slowly we could have adapted ourselves to the new conditions, but industrialism has come so swiftly that we have not had time to fully modify our modes of thought and ways of doing things to fit the changed conditions of life. One result of this failure has been a breakdown of consensus in modern society. This can be seen in the lack of unanimity in the definition of certain roles in the American culture. A role consists of a pattern of learned behavior which one is expected to display in a given status. For example, each society has a definition of the behavior expected of those of the female sex. At the present time in America the female role is very poorly defined. The female role has undergone rapid change and not enough time has elapsed for the new outlines of the expected behavior to become established. Women are sometimes deeply disturbed because they are uncertain of their role. Another problem stems from the lack of consistency in role patterns. Some American roles reflect past conditions, while others are in accord with our present way of life. Both men and women sometimes find that they must play roles which are basically inconsistent with one another. The young wife who is also a career woman may



find that an emotional strain is involved in swiftly changing from an old fashioned role to a modern one.

What can be done about the shortcomings of the industrial way of life? In answering this question the social scientists disagree with the older critics of industrialism. First, the social scientists claim that economic changes are not enough. The problems we face in modern society are primarily emotional ones. Secondly, the social scientists point out that it is fruitless to decry the conditions which now exist and to seek to turn back the clock to the older agricultural way of life. The older way of life also had its shortcomings. Those inadequacies were solved by coupling technology with mass production. We do not suffer the hardships and privations which our ancestors knew. Our present problems of social life have come about largely because we were so successful in solving the shortcomings of the older way of life. The social scientists take the position that the solution to our present difficulties lies in changing our way of urban living and the nature of mass production so that they will more closely satisfy the needs of human feelings.

These changes have already begun. In many industries the new insights into the nature of man are carefully followed. The emotional well-being of the worker has become a matter of serious concern. The influence of Elton Mayo, of the Graduate School of Business Administration of Harvard University, has been instrumental in effecting this change. Social scientists have worked out several new techniques to boost employee morale and have encouraged the use of others already known. Workers are rotated from one job to another to avoid monotony. Carefully planned rest periods are provided, and in some factories recorded music is used. Wherever possible tasks are organized so that men can be together while they work. Talking on the job is often encouraged rather than forbidden, and, when it is necessary, workers are informed of the relationship of their task to the finished product which is being produced. Furthermore,

the route to promotions is explained, and an attempt is made to convince each worker that he has a chance for a better job. The recreational activities of employees after working hours are encouraged and in many instances subsidized by management. The object of policies such as these is to increase production by making the worker feel that the factory is not just a place where he makes a living, but rather a community of which he is a member.

The social scientist has also been influential in establishing programs to alleviate the shortcomings of urban life. These have included marriage counseling, neighborhood associations, the creation of Youth Authorities (as in California), and a greater emphasis on slum clearance. The influence of social scientists has also led to better city planning and the creation of more parks and playgrounds. Orphan asylums have been replaced by the use of foster homes. Many specific problems, such as alcoholism and juvenile delinquency, have been alleviated by the large number of voluntary organizations which have sprung up in recent years under the leadership of social scientists.

These changes in factories and towns bear comparison to the public health problem which became very serious in the nineteenth century when many small communities began to develop into large cities. It was necessary then that individuals become aware of the need for sanitation, just as now, the social scientist insists, it is necessary that there be a better understanding of the emotional needs of man.

Unfortunately, the progress the social sciences have made recently has been accomplished by focusing attention upon the emotional side of man's nature almost to the exclusion of his other aspects. The social scientists are studying an abstraction and not the whole man. One may not legitimately argue that the social scientists should not study an abstraction: the physical scientists have done it for years. The atomic theory of matter is an abstraction. A serious danger may lie, however, in the popularization of the abstract views of modern social sci-

ence. The dignity of man may suffer. As yet only the importance of a sense of "belonging" and of "emotional security" has become widely known. A child or an adult is surely happier if these feelings are satisfied. However, if our obeisance to adjustment should go too far we may seek only the satisfaction of man's basic emotions and lose sight of his intellectual ideals and aspirations.

Nevertheless, the new social science, despite its present shortcomings, offers great hope for the future. The public health crisis of years ago forced the development of biology, and the social disorders of the present day seem to be forcing the creation of a science of man. The insights of the social science of today may very well be a first step

in the attainment of a fully developed science of man. Not too many years ago, before biology was a science, it was widely believed that the worms found in the watering troughs of those days were developed from horse hairs which had dropped in the stagnant water. Such naive biological conclusions are now very rare, but more damaging social and psychological ones are still quite common. Perhaps now the day is not far distant when every educated man will be able to distinguish the reasonable assumptions as to the nature of man and society from those which are unreasonable. The social criticism offered by the new social science seems to be a promising first step in that direction.

## A Plea for Improved Writing in the Social Sciences<sup>1</sup>

ARTHUR H. DOERR<sup>2</sup>

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Editors of publications in the social science field have long been faced with the problem of selecting manuscripts of scholarly and literary quality from the great volume of material which they receive. Unfortunately much of the material submitted for publication is substandard in quality. Frequently, even though his desk is groaning under the weight of manuscripts, the editor is hard put to assemble enough quality material to publish a particular number of a periodical. Such a state of affairs not only creates editorial problems, but places the humanistic group of academicians in a highly suspect position. It behooves each of us, as social scientists, to make every attempt to improve our literary efforts.

We social scientists must stop burdening

the readers of our books, monographs, and articles with "fuzzy" thinking and "ragged" writing. Inadequately supported generalizations which fill our manuscripts must be purged from the pages.<sup>3</sup> A host of ills which beset published (and unpublished) works in the social studies must be cured.

We, as readers, have come to expect and accept the shortcomings of our author friends. A far larger group, however, is unwilling to accept slipshod writing. Most non-social science groups are likely to find our material highly unappetizing.

Is there any wonder that students find geography, history, political science, economics, and sociology textbooks dull? Sometimes even we, as social scientists, do. Can we blame physical, biological, or earth sci-



entists for considering the term social science a misnomer? Certainly many of our works lack scientific quality. Are our colleagues to be condemned for criticizing the geographic treatment of political geography, or the historians' treatment of economic history, or the sociologists treatment of demography? Such dual discipline works reveal a studied lack of appreciation of the political scientist by the political geographer, of the economist by the economic historian, of the geographer and economist by the sociologist. Until we demonstrate ability to utilize the social scientist's tools, and until our research reports demonstrate superior writing skills, we deserve the scorn of our well informed and lucid colleagues. Until our writing is made at once *accurate* and *interesting* social scientists will continue to be despised by student and scientist alike.

As a geographer<sup>4</sup> who respects the opinions of his students and his scientist friends, the author, in the following pages, has the temerity to suggest what is wrong with writing in the social sciences and what can be done to overcome existing evils.<sup>5</sup> In addition, attention is given to the good points of recorded social science research. Further, examples of *good* writing are singled out to show how sparkling and refreshing well written material can be.<sup>6</sup> And, at the risk of offense to many, examples of inferior writing are singled out as warnings of what not to do for both established and novice authors.

What's wrong with writing in the social sciences? Obviously many things are wrong with it. One of the most notable failings is the stereotype treatment which similar subjects receive from different authors. Precedent has resulted in an established form and social scientists slavishly follow the pattern.

Any book or article is dull if the reader knows, before he begins to read, the precise route which will be taken by the author. On the other hand, a book, article, or monograph tickles the mental palate if it breaks with tradition. Stereotyping was avoided in "The Rural Land Classification Program of Puerto Rico," *Northwestern University*

*Studies in Geography*, Number I, July, 1952, edited by Malcolm J. Proudfoot. Six rather lengthy essays dealing with land use were handled in such diverse fashion that the stereotype onus was eliminated.<sup>7</sup>

Paradoxically enough some other writers are too devious. They display an amazing facility for clouding the issue, confusing the reader, and leaving everyone exhausted. All too frequently the reader wonders where he is being led, is surprised at his arrival at destination, and thoroughly confused as to where he has been.

On the other hand a beautiful example of directness, succinct statement of problem solution, and summarization of results is to be found in Ronald L. Ives, "The Palestinian Environment," *American Scientist*, vol. 38, 1950, pp. 85-104. Some quotations from "The Palestinian Environment" suffice to illustrate this point.

"As a natural consequence of the increased importance of Palestine in world affairs, the need for a better understanding of the Palestinian environment has arisen. Geographic features of this troubled land are here outlined, in as much pertinent detail as the available evidence permits."

In the body of the text Ives proceeds precisely, concisely, and completely to accomplish his objective. His summary page quoted from page 104 is masterful.

"In summary, study of the Palestinian environment discloses that the land is not only poorly endowed by nature, but that it has been misused by its inhabitants for 6000 years or more, and that it is now overpopulated. Extension of present irrigation works, added development of the few mineral resources of the land, and expansion of local industries, with improvement and standardization of products, may lead to economic stability, provided—and only provided—that a stable and lasting government can be established. Even with maximum utilization of all resources, it appears that Palestine cannot, in the foreseeable future, support as many as 4,000,000

inhabitants on any tolerable standard, and that, barring a sudden influx of wealth from oil discoveries in the Negeb or elsewhere, attainment of governmental and economic stability in Palestine will be a slow and painful process."

#### LOOSE KNITITIS,<sup>8</sup> VERBOSITY, AND JARGON

Three other closely allied writing ailments are: *loose knititis*, verbosity, and jargon. Some work is so poorly coordinated as to leave its theme hopelessly buried in a mound of meaningless fluff. Writing must be articulated and woven together like a piece of well finished cloth. J. Russell Whitaker in his presidential address before the Association of American Geographers at Philadelphia on April 14, 1954 presented a logical, orderly, and well knit address, which was later published in *The Annals of the Association of American Geographers*.<sup>9</sup> On the other hand another geographer gets lost in a maze of loose ends and tangled transitions, as the following quotation shows.

"Contributing to the southward trend is the fact that all but one of the counties in Indiana north of the 1914 center showed decreasing production and all but one to the south showed increasing production. The overall movement did not take place at a constant rate, however, so it is desirable to examine the changes in production occurring over shorter periods in order to establish the timing of the major shifts.

The 1914-1952 period may usefully be split at 1929 into two periods, each showing relatively little change in the total production of the field but considerable movement of the center of production."

A related difficulty, verbosity, is common to writers in most fields. Writers are prone to become ecstatic over their own prose, and as a result they ramble on and on. The reader is likely to be hypnotized too, but into unconsciousness, not ecstasy. M. E. Marts of the University of Washington recently published an article, "Upstream Storage Problems in Columbia River Power Development," *Annals of the Association of Ameri-*

*can Geographers*, vol. 44, 1954 pp. 43-50, which is admirable because much information is conveyed with a minimum of verbiage. On the other hand another writer reveals a particular penchant for verbosity in a monograph, which by its very title and subtitle is revelatory of the verbiage which is contained in the study. The title is quoted in its entirety for the edification of the reader.

"The Benefits of Rural Roads to Rural Property — Experimental Measurements of Geographic Relationships between Rural Roads and Location Utility in Three Washington Counties with Reference to the Location of Agriculture and Rural Non-Farm Residences, together with Comments on Aspects of Road Finance and Tax Assessment Problems"

Of the three related difficulties, namely, *loose knititis*, verbosity, and jargon, the latter is probably the most insidious of the three. Words are coined to cover any topic and are used indiscriminately by the social scientist.<sup>10</sup> As a result many social scientists and most others are at a loss to interpret the writer's meaning. Jargon appears in this quotation:

"The effects on behavior of such semantic equations may be viewed as varying along a continuum. As in the above example, they may constitute grounds for a belief powerful enough to produce overt non-verbal behavior. At the other extreme, they may be quite ineffective or function merely as suggestive stimulus to imagery not necessarily more vivid or more frequent than that which is unsupported by linguistic analogy."

Another social scientist who has obviously fallen into the same trap is the author of the following quotation:

One must recognize that in a discussion of this nature, limited to a treatment of only two variables out of many, the problem of cause-and-effect is not central and cannot be determined. This does not mean that it is not important. It would be valuable to know that

parents in the upper-status levels, for example, are for that reason, less authoritarian in their relationships with their children than are parents in lower-status levels. To learn that they are not would also be valuable knowledge. For example, one might find that parents in the higher-status brackets—and for that reason—tend to be judged as less authoritarian by their children, even though their behavior in relation to their children does not differ from that of parents in lower-status levels; children of parents in the latter category simply may be more prone to consider their parents authoritarian perhaps because of greater deprivations due to economic limitations. These questions of causal relationships are not answered in this study. The value of the study is based upon the determination of the existence of correlations between indices of social status and parental-authority patterns among a group of adolescent girls. If correlations are found, then problems of causation and/or interpretation become important.

Sir Winston Churchill had the right idea when he stated after notification that he had been awarded the Nobel Prize that generally speaking the short words were the best, and the old words were the best of all. English speaking peoples, other than Americans, frequently manage to use that language more effectively than their American cousins. A recent article with an almost complete lack of jargon is: L. L. Pownall, "The Function of New Zealand Towns," *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, vol. 43, 1953, pp. 332-350. And, although economists are among the most guilty in jargon employment, one economist, at least, Joseph Krislov, nimbly avoids the jargonistic pitfall in a recent article.

"Discussion of the problem of raiding among American unions has taken place without any grounding in statistical fact. This note proposes to lay the foundations for a statistical examination of the problems of raiding.

A raid is defined as an attempt by one union to detain bargaining rights in a unit in which another union holds certification from the National Labor Relations Board or has been given an exclusive bargaining contract by the employer. The definition is focused on the attempt itself, regardless of the result of the election. Nevertheless, only if an election were held in the unit, would it appear in this statistical analysis."<sup>11</sup>

#### PRECISION IN WRITING

It should be noted, in addition, that writing in the social sciences is loaded with words and phrases which have no precise meaning. How often are words like relatively, almost, approximately, about, many, few, and some encountered in scholarly works? To be sure these words are perfectly good and must be used to some<sup>12</sup> extent, but they are over-used to the point of reader exhaustion. Social scientists avoid *precise* words and *exact* expressions like the plague. This situation must be changed if other scientists are to respect the social scientist's published research account. No such deference will be forthcoming until authors express themselves in concrete terms. An example of written precision is

"*Wadis* are the typical stream-cut valleys of the dry lands. They are known also as *washes*, *arroyos*, and *barrancas*, although the term wadi is most usually applied to them. A wadi may be shallow or deep, narrow or wide, but it is always marked by steep, normally cliffed sides and a nearly level bottom. The shape is a direct consequence of the intermittency of water flow. When running water is present, it carves a more or less V-shaped valley at first, like the youthful valley of humid areas. As water disappears, the load is dropped to fill in the lower part of the V and creates a level bottom. Succeeding water encounters a channel which is glutted with previously dropped materials; the flood spreads out over the wadi floor and actively undermines and steepens the



valley sides. This procedure is repeated over and over again."<sup>13</sup>

The preceding quotation taken from an elementary textbook does not involve report of individual research by the authors, but their points are made through the use of terse precise language. Another excellent example of precise expression is to be found in Ronald L. Ives, "Later Pleistocene Glaciation in the Silver Lake Valley, Colorado," *The Geographical Review*, vol. 43, 1953, pp. 229-252.

On the other hand an otherwise excellent article is somewhat weaker, because the author feels the necessity to hedge.

"In summary, elections reflect economic conditions. Midterm elections reflect them more sharply than presidential elections. In the past 37 years it has generally taken a serious economic decline in presidential election years to oust the party in power. Economic history suggests that the Republicans should win without difficulty in 1956 if economic conditions stay good and if Eisenhower runs. Otherwise there is considerable likelihood that the Republicans will lose."<sup>14</sup>

It should be pointed out too, that exact expression of research results is easier when the problem can be assayed quantitatively. Those who deal with the human element have a more difficult task in attaining precision of expression, than do those who deal with physical factors.<sup>15</sup>

#### DESCRIPTIVE WRITING

The trend towards "problem solution" type articles has resulted in a serious shortage of good descriptive works. It is certainly true that many problems remain to be solved, but there is much need for good descriptive writing. It should be pointed out in all fairness that anthropology, history, geography, and sociology lend themselves to descriptive treatment far more readily than economics or political science. One such example of good description is quoted from William E. Powers, "Polar Eskimos of Greenland and Their Environment," *Journal of Geography*, vol. 49, 1950, p. 188.

"The environment of the Polar Eskimo from ancient times has been exceedingly harsh and forbidding. Greenland north of Melville Bay is a plateau from 1000 to 2000 feet high, largely covered by the interior ice cap which discharges to the sea through narrow valley glaciers. Deep fiords indent the plateau margin. Low flat areas are few and small. Soil is lacking over much of the area and bare rocky ledges, cliffs, boulder strewn uplands, and harsh climate, limit very strictly the vegetation.

The vegetation is a tundra. The only trees are low creeping *twigs* or mats of birch and willow, too scarce to be used as a fuel. Grasses of several types and numerous small flowering plants occupy boggy areas and spots of soil. Most of these plants are xerophytic, for available water is scarce, being tied up in ice during most of the year. Lichens cover many rock surfaces including the stones in talus slopes, but they grow very slowly. No food plant is available to the Eskimo, but during times of starvation it was the practice to scrape lichens from the rocks and boil them into a sort of paste which was eaten. The only vegetable food eaten by the primitive Eskimos was the stomach contents of caribou when killed during the hunt."

Since an ability to observe and describe is of paramount significance to all scientists, it is appropriate to include references to other examples of good descriptive writing. Keith Buchanan's "Nigeria — Largest Remaining British Colony," *Economic Geography*, vol. 28, 1952, pp. 302-322, serves the purpose well since, as Mr. Buchanan put it,

"It is the purpose of this paper to sketch in broad outline the essential features in the human and economic geography of this largest remaining colonial dependency of Britain."<sup>16</sup>

In short, Buchanan's study is designated to be descriptive, and it is. The following quotation supports this contention.

"Excluding the mangrove and swamp forests of the coast belt whose influence has been, and still is, largely negative, the high forest zone falls into two major regions, the rain-forest of the humid east and the dry forest of the west. The former is an outstanding example of a region of difficulty, and area of tangled, rain sodden vegetation, hostile to a farmer and traveller and of intensely leached sandy soils whose acidity renders them useless for all save a limited range of crops. It is one of the major paradoxes of the human geography of Nigeria that it is in this seemingly adverse environment that the greatest concentration of population in the country—that of Iboland—should be found. Westwards with decreasing rainfall, the rain forests give place to the formation described by Nigerian botanists as "Dry Forest." The forest, though still multistoried in character, contains a higher proportion of deciduous trees and is more open in character. Soil conditions, too, are more favorable, the dominant soil group, the Ilepa group, being derived from the gneisses and granites of the old shield and containing reserves of fertility which are completely lacking in the leached sedimentary—derived soils of the rain forest and which have been an important factor in the rise of the prosperous peasant communities of Yorubaland."<sup>17</sup>

Lincoln Barnett has done a superb job of descriptive writing in "The World We Live In" series published in *Life*. A quotation from one of the articles serves to demonstrate this fact.

"The forest is taller than most Temperate Zone woods, averaging 110 to 120 feet in height with occasional trees sometimes soaring to 200 feet. Leaves are large and leathery, dark green in color. Everywhere, interspersed among the pillars of the trees, dangle the sinewy cables of lianas and other climbing plants, sometimes taut as the lines of a sailing vessel, sometimes festooned

like Christmas tinsel or looped like lariats.

Owing to the predominance of woody plants and the general uniformity of their dark foliage, the rain forest presents a somber and even monotonous visage which is unvaried by seasonal change. Yet for all its apparent homogeneity, it comprises an extraordinarily complex domain of life, richer in plant and animal species than any other community in nature—save perhaps the sea. Where temperate woods may embrace a few dozen varieties of trees at the most, a square mile of rain forest encompasses two or three hundred—counting only those with trunks more than a foot in diameter. Its smaller trees and woody shrubs are equally multifarious, as are the animal tenants who inhabit every tier of the forest edifice from its shadowed floor to the green mansions of the sunlit upper terraces . . .<sup>18</sup>

Could one ask for a more vivid word picture? How refreshing it would be if more authors had a comparable flair for descriptive writing.

#### "GLITTERING GENERALITIES"<sup>19</sup>

Social scientists are prone, as a group, to wallow in "glittering generalities."<sup>20</sup> Platitudes and pet phrases have a catchy sound which makes them widely appealing. Unfortunately such a shimmering expression blinds author and reader to the fact that the statement is founded on research quicksand. If an author is to be respected within his profession he must avoid the broad statement of truth unless he cites specific evidence to validate the statement.

It, at first glance, appears that Mather and Hart fell into the "glittering generality" trap in one of their recent articles when the first sentence is seen to encompass a broad sweep. To quote:

"Although American geographers have tended to ignore fences when they have studied the American landscape, five and a half million American farmers can't be wrong."<sup>21</sup>

Happily, however, the reader is convinced



by the time he has reached the end of the article that the broad introductory statement is true.

#### CAUSE AND EFFECT

Social scientists deal with a highly diversified and complex subject. The physical environment is full of caprice, and man is by nature an erratic and unpredictable being, at least in his use of resources. Since social scientists study both man and environment their task is filled with difficulties. Research tasks and results are frequently more heterogeneous than homogeneous. Hence social scientists, who write, must be extremely careful not to oversimplify cause and effect.

Cause and effect are usually enmeshed in such a tangle of intangibles that it is humanly impossible to extricate and pinpoint cause(s) and effect(s). Occasionally, however, an author will be led astray by concentrating on one cause-effect thread entwined in a tangled skein of causes and effects. This is easy to do, since one cause-effect thread is brighter and more distinct than other dull and fuzzy threads which go together to make up the whole. This does not justify, however, the assumption that one thread completes the fabric. If such a supposition is made, it is likely that the material of the article will be pieced together out of "whole cloth."

Lester E. Klimm deftly sidesteps the single direct cause-effect relationship in, "The Empty Areas of the Northeastern United States," *The Geographical Review*, vol. 44, 1954, pp. 325-345. A quotation from page 332 displays Mr. Klimm's incisive thinking.

"But the relation between empty areas and unfavorable terrain or climate is by no means simple and merits the adjective "causal" only partly. The difficulty is immediately revealed if a statement of generalization is attempted; for instance, "Most empty areas have terrain handicaps, but much of the area with difficult terrain is not in empty areas." Obviously, therefore, difficult terrain does not "cause" empty areas, or there would be what James calls "coincidence" or "in situ correspondence" of their boundaries."

#### OTHER SHORTCOMINGS

In the preceding pages the author has attempted to select some of the more obvious failings to be found in the social sciences. Certainly other shortcomings exist. Three are suggested here without attempt at elaboration.

A few authors attempt to impress their readers with the profundity of what they're doing, instead of letting the work speak for itself. Editors receive manuscripts and illustration in every conceivable form. Putting these manuscripts into publishable shape greatly increases the work of the editor. And for this state of affairs the editors themselves are partly to blame. The author suggests that each editor of a journal publish a condensed manual of style which should be followed by contributors to that magazine.

Many authors, because of academic pressure to publish, fail to have anything to say in their manuscripts, since they are born of economic necessity and are not products of fruitful research.

#### WHAT'S RIGHT WITH SOCIAL SCIENCE WRITING

It is only fair to admit that much which is good can be attributed to social science authors. For example, much of the material which is published is handsomely and effectively illustrated. Maps, graphs, and photographs are excellent devices whereby social scientists may successfully convey ideas.

Social scientists, too, are able to synthesize. Frequently they are able to see the forest in spite of the trees, while some of their academic associates are lost in a maze. There are some, the author not counted in that number, who say that the most significant contribution which social scientists can make is through synthesis.

Partly because social scientists do synthesize they tend to tackle many bizarre subjects which at first appear to have little relationship to a specific discipline. It is fortunate that they do, however, for in this manner valuable information is brought to light which would remain hidden if individuals hewed closely to their academic bound-

aries. Examination of such phenomena as house types, roof types, and fences may at first glance appear ridiculous, but it is possible that this research may eventually be recognized as having contributed to basic concepts. The work by Mather and Hart (previously cited) is a case in point. These two gentlemen have turned out a solid piece of work on a seemingly innocuous subject.

The best that can be said about writing in the social sciences is that some of it has proven to have been, and is proving to be, of practical value. Studies and reports compiled and synthesized by social scientists and distributed to governmental agencies are valuable. Proof of this is found in statements of praise for geographers, political scientists, economists, and others who served in wartime, and in the large number of social scientists still on the payroll of governmental agencies.

Background work and reports written by geographers, economists, sociologists, and others have proven valuable in the planning field. T.V.A. and the Puerto Rican Rural Land Classification Program are outstanding examples of geographic service to planners. Sociologists are of inestimable value in problems of crime, delinquency, social work, etc. Economists plot a stable economic course for national planners. Political scientists place their educated fingers on the pulse of world affairs. They are able to do this through an intelligent appraisal of ancient and modern history. These significant services are dependent upon basic literature of the past and present.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In short, there is good social science writing and bad. Early training in writing in graduate schools will do much to insure that the quality of writing improve.

The most critical and pressing problems are summarized in the following sentences. To improve the scientific quality of their writing social scientists must do a more critical and analytical job of research. Further they must express themselves with more clarity and precision. Obviously, therefore,

more attention must be given to semantics. Unnecessary jargon must go. The art of good description must be regained and more frequently utilized. Old problems must be approached in *new* ways. New problems must be examined and solved.

Writing in the social sciences can and must be interesting and informative. And, not only social scientists, but the whole academic profession will gain stature when more attention is given to improving writing skills.

<sup>1</sup> The author makes small claim to sagacity, certainly not to omniscience. In fact some of the material which he has published looks, in retrospect, bad. Indeed it is true that this article contains some of the shortcomings which are attacked in it. The author hopes, however, that this article will jolt the poor writer out of sloppy habits, and the accolades for a few contained herein will spur them on to greater efforts.

<sup>2</sup> Undoubtedly many readers will be inclined to feel as Plato once did when he said, "You are young, my son, and as the years go by, time will change and even reverse many of your present opinions. Refrain, therefore, a while from setting yourself up as a judge of the highest matters."

<sup>3</sup> This statement is an example of an unsupported generalization.

<sup>4</sup> This explains why greater attention is directed to geographic writing in this article, since the author possesses a greater degree of familiarity with literature in that field.

<sup>5</sup> Suggestions for improvement are related to content and style for the most part, rather than to form.

<sup>6</sup> Examples are taken from material published in the United States from 1950-57. For the most part examples are selected from periodicals or monographs.

<sup>7</sup> The author does not suggest that any of the articles or books cited as illustrations of a given point are good or bad in their entirety. Further, only one or two good examples are used to illustrate any point. Obviously many examples of *fine* writing are ignored. Similarly segments taken from context to illustrate writing faults are not necessarily indicative of the merit of the article as a whole.

<sup>8</sup> Loose knittitis may be recognized in writing which does not hang together. Transitions are vague, and it is difficult for the reader to maintain a coherent train of thought. Much could be done to eliminate this difficulty with a more liberal use of sub-headings.

<sup>9</sup> Published as "The Way Lies Open," *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, vol. 44, 1954, pp. 231-244.

<sup>10</sup> A prime example is the use of the coined word *loose knittitis* by the author.

<sup>11</sup> Joseph Krislov, "The Extent and Trends of Raiding Among American Unions," *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, vol. 69, 1955, pp. 145-152. Quote from page 145.

<sup>12</sup> There it is again.

<sup>13</sup> Henry M. Kendall, Robert M. Glendinning, and Clifford H. MacFadden, *Introduction to Physical Geography*, Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York, 1953, p. 251.

<sup>14</sup> Donald L. Kemmerer, "Economic Trends and Elections," *Current Economic Comment*, vol. 17, 1955, pp. 49-54. Quote from page 54.

<sup>15</sup> In all fairness it must be admitted that published material of the last few years has eliminated much of the qualification so frequently encountered in articles or books of fifteen or more years ago.

<sup>16</sup> Quoted from page 302.

<sup>17</sup> Quoted from pp. 303-305.

<sup>18</sup> Lincoln Barnett, "The Rain Forest," *Life*, Sept. 20, 1954, p. 76.

<sup>19</sup> A "glittering generality" is an extremely broad generalization which is superficial in expression and foundation.

<sup>20</sup> Sic!

<sup>21</sup> Eugene Cotton Mather and John Fraser Hart, "Fences and Farms," *The Geographical Review*, vol. 44, 1954, pp. 200-223. Quotation from page 200.

## Anti-Americanism Abroad: The Indonesian Case

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The violent popular outburst of anti-Americanism on Formosa in May 1957, has focused attention on the broader patterns of hostility which the United States has had to endure of late in many, and periodically in seemingly all, corners of the globe. Commentators both foreign and domestic have pointed out that such hostility is an inevitable by-product of contemporary America's fabulous opulence and power, the expression of an aggressive and widespread envy in the world that is said to bewilder and dishearten the U. S. public. The significance of this factor can hardly be minimized and I shall return to it later on. It would seem, however, that there is another and perhaps more important cause of anti-American sentiment, especially in the countries of Africa and Asia which only recently attained their national independence and which are, in various degrees, committed to a so-called "neutralist" approach in world affairs. This cause is a continuous and often desperate search for national identity in a period of rapid cultural change, a striving for ideological and cultural norms that can clothe the bare framework of newly acquired national existence. So regarded, anti-Americanism is a form of anxiety, that seems on occasion to reach massive proportions. To illustrate these contentions we may perhaps offer the

case of a single Southeast Asian country, namely Indonesia, where the problem is strikingly acute.

As the largest state in Southeast Asia both in size and population (more than 80 million people), with its strategic location athwart the equator and its rich resources in rubber, tin and petroleum, Indonesia is of major importance to the United States. While anti-Americanism here has not reached the same pitch as in some other areas, its latent strength can never be underestimated. Sometimes hostility to America seems to be a matter of political tactics by some of the nation's leadership, as for example the sloganizing that "We will iron America flat" of Indonesian nationalists during the Japanese occupation in World War II. Often it emanates from America's position in the Cold War and her alliance with some of the major colonial powers of today. Thus during the trials in 1954 and 1955 of Dutchmen accused of subversive activities against the Indonesian state, some state witnesses alleged that planes of the American embassy in Djakarta were assisting a group of die-hard colonial Dutchmen in the reestablishment of Dutch control over Indonesia. On occasion also popular frustration and insecurity enhanced American outbursts, as, for example, earlier by protracted political crises lead to anti-



this year, when U. S. business interests in Indonesia were accused of fomenting secessionism in rebellious provinces. Finally misconduct of Americans in Indonesia may heighten antipathies, as, for example, in the instance of the U. S. Marine embassy guard in Djakarta, who on May 6, 1957, in a drunken rage went about tearing down flags put up by Indonesians in honor of the state visit of Soviet Russian President Voroshilov. Yet, always the undercurrent of the animosity engendered by such incidents is the tension arising out of the enduring clash of national aims and cultural values in the new Indonesia itself.

Fundamental to an understanding of this conflict is the imposition of a doctrinaire revolutionary nationalism, derived from Western historic Liberalism and Marxism, on a village-based tribal society with its own variegated social structures, methods of production and religious values, broadly suffused with Hinduized and Islamic beliefs. The churning produced by the confluence of these two cultural streams explains much of Indonesia's political instability. For example, Indonesian nationalism venerates as dogma the absolute unity of land and people under a single central government and any suggestion of modification of this tenet, e.g., decentralization and extensive local autonomy, was until very recently apt to be branded heretical. But the consequences of rigid centralization and of a focusing of all public administration on Djakarta have been the very same ones that historically confronted the Jacobins or the "centralists" of the Latin American experience: provincial rebellion on behalf of traditional autonomy, local Girondisms pitted against the oppressive *gleichschaltung* emanating from the capital, an upsurge of regional and ethnic particularism fearful that hallowed custom be swept aside in what might be described as an Indonesian version of Mexico's "Porfirism". All through these first eight years of Indonesia's national independence there have been separatist movements and cries that local usage and freedom are stifled by

the oppression and parasitic demands of the national administration and its hypertrophied bureaucracy. Today, in virtually all the provinces outside Java regional leaders supported by local military have disavowed the authority of the central government, semi-autonomous councils have been established that reflect first of all the never-to-be-forgotten fact that Indonesia is as yet a nation of nations, a conglomeration of the most diverse racial and ethnic groups, each with its own cultural traditions, prejudices and pride of local achievement.

The reaction of some leading Western-trained Indonesian nationalists to this development has had a curious anti-Western tone. President Sukarno has repeatedly declared that democracy "Western style" has failed in Indonesia and is simply "not suitable" for his country. The principles of majority rule, parliamentary government and ministerial responsibility should be abandoned, Sukarno has in effect urged, in favor of a mystique of socio-political nativism based on so-called *gotong rojong* (mutual cooperation) democracy as it is practised in the village society with its tradition of consensus of opinion based on sacred custom among all members, in which there is no room for partisan opposition. In this and similar pronouncements one is struck by the uneasy combination of the modern nationalists' vocabulary and lingering feudal authoritarian practices. Another instance is the ambivalent position of the civil bureaucracy. The new Indonesia has retained, indeed confirmed, many of the traditional patterns of power and social control of customary headmen, clan chiefs and other aristocracy, whose influence over the untutored village masses has hardly diminished. Yet, on the other hand, modern education is creating a class of commoners in the government services whose origin is identified with the modern democratic character of the national state, and who, in league with more sanguine political partisans, never weary of employing the terminology of public equality: *saudara* (brother—the semi-official mode of address

among officials) or *bung* (brother—reserved for the nationalist greats, e.g. "Bung Karno" for Sukarno). The net result has been that the Rousseauistic nomenclature of the national state masks a traditional feudal-authoritarian need and political life assumes often the worst aspects of mass political behavior: the new public leader is a *priaji* (noble) in the pseudo-democratic garb of the demagogue and the market brawler. The danger is that only in that form does he seem to be recognizable to many Indonesians.

There is a slowly growing awareness of the vexing nature of this cultural synthesis in Indonesia but this does not appear to have mitigated the tendency to let the pendulum of political aspirations swing in the direction of a xenophobic nativism whenever the mechanics of Western democratic government seem to falter. The U. S. as the chief power of the democratic world must of necessity bear the brunt of this xenophobia.

The same conflict exists in Indonesian economic life. There is hardly a public figure of note or a political party of any consequence in the country today that is not wedded to the idea of a collectivist economy and the epithets reserved to describe capitalist private enterprise rival in bitterness those applied to colonialism in whatever form. President Sukarno has again and again exhorted his countrymen not to become "embryo capitalists" who have no regard for the common weal and his affection for a Marxist economic system dates from his student days. Only recently, after having journeyed to both the U. S. and the USSR, Sukarno declared in an address before the nation's teachers that comparatively speaking he had learned much more from his visit to the Socialistic countries than from his stay in the capitalist world. And he cited with approval a letter he stated he had received from a Soviet citizen of Irkutsk in Russian Siberia which declared that "Europe is the past, the U. S. is the present and the Soviet Union is the future". Yet all this doctrinaire ideologuing is in sharp contrast to the actual reality of a resurgent Indonesian entrepreneurial class, energetic and re-

sourceful and often capable of competing effectively with the Chinese who have so long entrenched themselves in the national economy. As yet this class is comparatively small, often inefficient and untutored in managerial skills but of its dynamic promise for the future there can be no question. Unfortunately, corruption and wasteful parasitism have also come to be associated with this upsurge of business activity, and seeing this enables the nationalist élite to continuously denounce the evils of "Western style capitalism" in their country. Figures like Sukarno are ready again to throw the entire principle of private enterprise overboard and make the tradition of communal production and ownership as they prevail in the *gotong rojong* village, and in which economic self interest is subordinated to the interest of the group, the basis of a modern Marxist economy.

The tragedy is that the divergence between economic theory and practice has led to waste, stagnation and falling levels of production, while the emphasis on collectivist planning is frightening away the foreign private capital and enterprises which Indonesia's fiscal health so desperately requires and is also fostering a debilitating dependence on government subsidy in precisely those sectors of the economy (e.g. industry and foreign trade) in which the government is trying to encourage its nationals. Not the least of the reasons behind the revolts in Sumatra, Kalimantan (Borneo) and East Indonesia earlier this year is the mounting dissatisfaction of dynamic entrepreneurial groups in the more open, "frontier-like" society beyond Java with the excessive regulatory powers of the national government. Indeed, the provincial rebellions mark the coming of age of new elements of development eager to respond to the call of ethnic and local pride and advancement, and unwilling to wait for the approval of Djakarta to take much needed reconstruction in hand. The Indonesian leaders may well have to consider the about face of Burma whose economic problems are much the same as Indonesia's. Burma too, under its Socialist



premier U Nu, strove for a "Socialist state", but last June all but abandoned it since a decade of government planning and regulation had brought little advancement. Instead, people "with profit motives" are to be encouraged, U Nu has declared, while the Burmese government is to withdraw "from having a finger in all sorts of economic pies."

Indonesia appears to be some distance away from U Nu's realistic self appraisal, however, for its declining economy and falling per capita national income have rather tended toward the stereotyped reaction that "profit motives" and "Western style capitalism" are to blame for the country's ills, and salvation lies in a return to *gotong rojong* and collectivism. Indonesian nationalists, indeed, appear never to weary of describing the evil psychological effects of private enterprise and even among those who know the U. S. from first-hand experience the usual impression of the American economy would have done credit to an old fashioned "muck raker." The late Hadji August Salim, one of nationalist Indonesia's "grand old men," and for some time a resident in the U. S., declared that "the worst jungle of the world these days is to be found in Wall Street. I often had the impression when walking about there that only tigers with human faces lived there." The impression is not particularly unique with Salim but the dogmatic fastidiousness with which it is upheld by his colleagues now gravely hampers the development of the Indonesian economy, while at the same time it feeds a steady substream of sentiment to back future explosions of anti-Americanism.

The projection of modern Marxist planning on the basis of traditional village collectivism and mutual assistance is not just a fortuitous ideological leap in the dark. Both the modern and the autochthonous Indonesian collectivism are akin in emphasizing communal controls, minimizing disparities of wealth and restricting individual gain. It is in this context, now, that we must see the operation of envy in anti-American explosions abroad. The aggressive assertion of popular envy is, as Helmut Schoeck has

convincingly demonstrated, a distinguishing feature of modern mass democracy and its undercurrent of economic egalitarianism. This is particularly true in the newly independent underdeveloped countries of the world. Here rancor at Western colonial exploitation of rich indigenous resources (in Indonesia one speaks of having been "drained" by the Dutch) has been combined under the aegis of nationalism with the fervent espousal of the "anti-materialistic" and more "spiritual" features of preindustrial village communalism in the traditional indigenous socio-economy. One thinks here, for example, of Gandhi's "spinning wheel" economy of "plain living and high thinking." Paradoxically, it is understood that the poverty of the teeming millions in the underdeveloped world cannot be raised by a return to the village economy of old and that therefore the advanced technology of the Western world will have to be applied. But again, when because of lack of organizational and technical skills, or because of protracted dissension in the ranks of the political leadership, the Western techniques do not bear fruit within a short period of time a new outburst of xenophobia and nativism can be expected. In Indonesia, at any rate, we can observe this problem in terms of another vicious circle: assuming that Indonesia remains a democratic state, the nativistic xenophobia (including anti-Americanism) cannot significantly diminish until the modern methods of Western machine technology and organization have taken firm hold and eased the desperate economic plight, while a further advance of these methods is hampered and indeed reversed (not the least because of Western capital's reluctance to expand in such an uncertain environment) by the pattern of xenophobia and its collectivist character.

Inseparable from the proclivity toward collectivism is the preponderant role assigned in Indonesian national life to the state and central bureaucracy. We have already noted how revolts have broken out in the provinces against excessive bureaucratic centralization, but there is another aspect of the pro-

blem of equal significance to the nation's future, namely the social and cultural conflicts being generated by Indonesia's present public educational system. In the colonial period more than 90 per cent of all Indonesians were illiterate, while limits on education facilities restricted the number of Indonesian graduates of all the standard high schools to a little over 200 per year. Fewer still were the diplomas earned by Indonesians in universities and professional schools in the colonial era. It is understandable that educational development has received major attention since Indonesia became free. Today illiteracy has been reduced to about 50 per cent; the number of graduates of primary schools and all manner of secondary schools runs in the tens of thousands annually, while higher education has opened facilities in virtually all the major provincial capitals of the country. But this great flight has not been accompanied by a realistic appraisal of the country's needs. Indonesia is overwhelmingly an agrarian country, with certain limited, if widening, opportunities in industry and commerce. The tendency now has been to focus on curricula that are only remotely related to the requirements of youngsters in a folk agrarian or petty commercial-industrial environment. Rather, emphasis is being placed on curricula in arts and sciences that qualify the graduate for some government or administrative position which he—and his parents!—ardently prefer over the life of the farmer or entrepreneur. While the understandable demand for education creates ever more secondary schools, the countryside and smaller towns are being "drained" of their youth and future leaders, while the pressure on government to accommodate an ever increasing influx of applicants in steady, prestigious administrative positions increases accordingly. A recent study of educational development on the island of Flores in East Indonesia illustrates this draining process clearly. This island community is being deprived, via the mushrooming secondary school system, of its younger generations who are disinclined to assist in the reconstruction of the area's rapidly deteriorating

peasant economy. Since the limited employment opportunities in government, industry and trade on Flores have already reached their saturation point, the result can only be a migration of young graduates elsewhere, to the further detriment of the region, or the growth of "an intellectual proletariat that will be easily swept away by every sort of extremism." The Flores problem is becoming acute also in other areas of Indonesia.

The chronic distension of the state apparatus and its regulatory influence stems then, not the least, from a misdirection of Indonesia's educational system. Broadening government employment may be one of the few immediate safety valves left in a condition of mounting social pressure caused by the ever increasing numbers of secondary and college graduates. This condition is not peculiar to Indonesia but is typical of all underdeveloped countries where certain cultural traditions, together with lack of capital and technology, hamper employment opportunities for the educated and skilled. In its recent report on "United States Aid Operations in Iran" the Committee on Government Operations of the U. S. House of Representatives noted that:

. . . reductions in expenditures would accomplish very little in Iran. Salaries and services account for about 70 per cent of the ordinary Government expenditures. That the Government payroll is overloaded with excess employees is generally admitted but, in the words of one witness, 'the problem cannot be met by simply cutting off large numbers of employees to roam the streets and become threats to the stability of the Government.'

These words apply without alteration to the Indonesian situation, but it would be unfair to see the hypertrophy of the state solely as a product of modern times. Just before the Second World War the noted Dutch civil servant and sociologist J. C. van Leur could still complain that "higher than the mountains of Java are the mountains of officials that have been loaded on this impassive country." The colonial bureaucratic

tradition must then shoulder something of the blame, and this should be precisely the reason to abandon it because Indonesia's developmental dynamics are being repressed by it unless—as occurred earlier this year—strong enough to overcome the state's regulatory powers in a debilitating political crisis. In the meantime the youth of the land is allowed to fritter away its buoyant nationalistic drive to develop the country by being offered the parasitic security and empty aplomb of government employment while the vital sectors of the economy in agriculture, industry and trade wither for want of new blood. The frustrations and explosive rancor which the traveller in Indonesia particularly notes among youth would appear to stem from this obfuscation of aims and damming of potentially constructive impulses which no creation of a new demagogic "Ministry for the Mobilization of People's Energies" is necessarily going to mitigate.

It has become commonplace to remark that many underdeveloped countries are prisoners

of their own nationalism. In Indonesia the ideological confines imposed by nationalism seem to be the result of the essential incongruity of its two chief elements, one a traditional nativism, oriented toward a mystique of indigenous agrarian - feudal values, the other the rationale of Western industrial civilization and its attendant ideologies from historic Liberalism to Marxism. There can be little question that nationalist aspirations for Indonesia's future greatness are intimately bound up with the latter component, but just as surely as it fails of swift realization the pendulum swings to the opposite pole leading to a marked aggravation of what one Indonesian military commander recently described as "Indonesia's sickness: the constant search for scapegoats." One must hope that the immense and as yet largely untapped reservoir of Indonesian ingenuity will be able to attenuate the tension of cultural opposites and in so doing also bring about a more balanced appreciation of the United States.

## The Original Plan of Maryland's First Integrated School

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Massachusetts can rightfully claim precedence, under the laws of 1642 and 1647, for the establishment of the first elementary and intermediate schools in Colonial North America.<sup>1</sup> Maryland, likewise, may assert its pretension to an important precedent. In the Chesapeake Bay Colony, an integrated school, perhaps the first institution of its kind, was founded in 1750.

The plan of this school was the outgrowth of an idea expressed in a sermon delivered to his congregation at Saint Peter's Parish

in Talbot County, by the Reverend Thomas Bacon, an Anglican clergyman. Bacon selected as his text the tenth verse of the sixth chapter of Saint Paul's Epistle to the Galatians:

... And we have therefore opportunity, let us do good unto all men: especially unto them who are of the household of faith. . . .<sup>2</sup>

The minister reaffirmed the text by an exposition on the theme of charity. He told his congregation that, "Only by doing good



is our eternal harvest assured, all other pretenses to charity are a mockery." The rector explained that Jesus not only ministered to the spiritual needs of the multitude but he took every opportunity of "doing good to their bodies." Jesus in practicing charity was not discriminatory. His high regard "is confined to no persons, countries or places." Acts of love and mercy make all of us dependent upon the goodness of Christ.

Having successfully provided the spiritual motivation, the rector made a special appeal to his congregation to "advance and set up" a charity working school in the Parish. Schools of this type had already been provided for under-privileged children in England. Bacon said that there were 1,960 "scholars" enrolled in such schools.

The proposed school in Maryland would "be a most extensive kind taking in the wants of both soul and body." Poor white children would be enrolled and "trained in profitable trades later to be hired out as apprentices." Negro slaves would also be included, for Bacon said, "Negroes ought not to be neglected; they have souls to be saved as well as bodies." He warned that "their souls are answerable to the conscience of the owners."<sup>3</sup>

The question naturally arises: Who was this Thomas Bacon? The sources are not clear concerning his birth. He may have been born on the Isle of Man but nothing definite is known of his childhood and early youth.

The earliest records indicate that as a young man, he was appointed by the ship-owners of Whitehaven as manager of a coal depot in Dublin, Ireland. His chief duties were to receive shipments of coal brought in by sea. If the market price was low, he would allow the ships to unload. He would not sell the coal, though, until the market price was high enough to justify a good profit. Such a scheme would seem to suggest the taint of speculation.

His interests, however, were not limited to the sale of coal. While he was residing in Ireland he wrote and published, *A Complete System of Revenue in Ireland*, which first appeared in print in 1737. This work revealed an amazing insight into the maze of laws

which regulated the excise, tariffs and duties on all the goods entering and leaving the port of Dublin. It was one of the first such compilations ever undertaken.<sup>4</sup>

Bacon did not succeed as a business man. Perhaps he became too interested in scholarly pursuits. He may have been too much of a humanitarian. Perchance the bottom dropped out of the coal market. Whatever may have been the reason, Bacon abandoned business as a career and decided to enter the Church. He prepared for the priesthood in the Anglican Church and through the assistance of his brother obtained a living at Saint Peter's Parish in Talbot County, Maryland.

Upon taking up his residence in Talbot County in 1743, Bacon began to make a survey of conditions in the parish. A letter written to his parishioners revealed the result of his observations. The clergyman wrote:

... Upon being appointed your minister, I began seriously and carefully to examine into the state of religion in the parish and I found a great many poor Negro slaves, belonging to Christian masters and mistresses, yet living in as profound ignorance of what Christianity really is as if they had remained in the midst of those barbarous heathen countries from whence they or their parents were imported. . . .<sup>5</sup>

Bacon began an active ministry among his parishioners. He became interested primarily in the spiritual and physical welfare of the illiterate whites and negro slaves. Many of his best sermons were those which he preached to the negroes of Maryland.

Anxious to improve the conditions, then, of the poor and under-privileged whites and the negro slaves, Bacon began to consider the prospects of establishing a school that would not only provide the fundamentals of learning for both races but one that would also enable the students to learn a profitable trade. He believed that not only the students themselves would benefit but that the prosperity and well being of the Colony depended upon such a school.

On Sunday, October 14, 1750, Thomas Bacon shared his ideas with the members of his parish in the sermon already discussed. The parishioners gave their full support to the minister and a general<sup>6</sup> plan for the establishment and maintenance of the proposed school was drawn up and signed by the distinguished vestrymen and members of the congregation.<sup>7</sup>

Provisions were made in the plan for a duly qualified master to be procured from England. The teacher was to be recommended and approved by one of the religious societies, (probably the *Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge* or the *Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts*).<sup>8</sup> It was specifically stipulated that the master should instruct as many poor white children and as many negro children as should be determined by the trustees.

The number of children starting with a few was to be increased according to the subscriptions of the benefactors. The physical needs of the students, housing, board, books and materials of instruction, were to be provided from the subscribed donations. The expenses of clothing and the board of negro students were to be defrayed by their owners.

The curriculum included Reading, Writing and Accounting. It was specifically stated "that such negro children as shall be sent by the order of the trustees of the said school shall be taught to read and write and instructed in the knowledge and fear of the Lord gratis." Vocational training was emphasized, "so that the produce of the children's labour (shall) contribute to their support or better encouragement as circumstances may require."<sup>9</sup>

The trustees of the school together with the rector and the treasurer were to have full power and authority in regulating the laws of this institution of learning. The laws were to stand as made unless altered or repealed by the trustees. If, however, any of the trustees, rector or treasurer shall disagree or dissent from the rules, "He may if he

pleases enter his reason for such dissent in the book of proceedings for the view of subscribers or others who may desire to see the same."<sup>10</sup> The right to disagree was thus acknowledged and good democratic procedures were emphasized in the plan.

Initial funds were raised for the support of the school by fifty subscribers. The sum of £180, 10 shillings was collected from the initial subscribers. In addition to this Horatio Sharpe, soon to be governor of Maryland, contributed and Charles Calvert, fifth Lord Baltimore, subscribed a substantial amount to the fund. An Anglican Bishop donated £100 to buy a negro boy and girl who could be used as servants in the school.

Bacon, an accomplished violinist as well as a divine, journeyed throughout the Colony giving musical concerts in order to help raise funds. On one occasion he traveled to Williamsburg, Virginia, and gave a concert before the students and the professors of the College of William and Mary.<sup>11</sup>

Most of the subscriptions were paid in English pounds and guineas as well as tobacco. A few subscribers contributed Spanish pieces of eight, pistoles, German gold pieces and Dutch guilders. All forms of money were collected.

The records are vague concerning the actual operation and administration of this institution. It has been fairly well authenticated that a brick house was built and a hundred acres of land were included in the property. Evidence seems to indicate that the school was still in existence in 1764.<sup>12</sup>

During the War for Independence, Bacon's school was probably closed. Perhaps the cause may be attributed to the near collapse and the loss of influence of the Anglican Church in America. Be it as it may, in 1787 the school building was given to the county and used for several years as an alms house.<sup>13</sup>

Though the school was closed because of circumstances that separated the thirteen colonies from Great Britain, it is important to remember that Thomas Bacon prepared the way, in colonial times, for an idea that has not been fully brought to fruition two



hundred years after his death. Bacon, like his Savior, was not discriminatory with regard to persons. He believed fervently in the education and the moral elevation of both races. The spirit of Bacon lives on today in the Supreme Court decision outlawing segregated schools.

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<sup>1</sup> R. Freeman Butts, *A Cultural History of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1947).

<sup>2</sup> Thomas Bacon, *A Sermon Preached at the Parish Church of Saint Peter's in Talbot County, Maryland, for the Benefit of the Charity Working School to be set up in the Said Parish for the Maintenance and Education of Orphans and other Poor Children and Negroes* (London: J. Oliver, Printer, 1751).

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>4</sup> William Hutchison, *History of the County of Cumberland, Vol. II* p. 41. (Baltimore: Maryland Historical Society). The excerpt taken from this history, which is now out of print, is included in the files on Thomas Bacon.

<sup>5</sup> Bernard C. Steiner, *A Pioneer in Negro Education* (An article written by Bernard C. Steiner, Librarian, Enoch Pratt Library. A copy of the pamphlet may be found in the file on Thomas Bacon in the Maryland Historical Society Library of Baltimore, Md. Publication dates of the pamphlet and the place of publication are not listed. Internal evidence suggests it may have been written around 1900-1901.)

<sup>6</sup> Bacon, *Op. Cit.*, Sermon, (The general plan of the school, though drawn up after the sermon was delivered, is included in the same volume as an appendix to the sermon.)

<sup>7</sup> The signers were: William Goldsborough, John Goldsborough, Matthew Tilghman, John Gordon, Robert Goldsborough, and Robert Lloyd.

<sup>8</sup> The parentheses are mine.

<sup>9</sup> Bacon, *Loc. Cit.*

<sup>10</sup> Bacon, *Loc. Cit.*

<sup>11</sup> Steiner, *Op. Cit.*, *A Pioneer in Negro Education*.

<sup>12</sup> The scope of this paper deals with the plan of the school and Bacon's ideas rather than the actual operation of the school.

<sup>13</sup> Steiner, *Loc. Cit.*

# Pupils Have Purposes Too

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All theories of learning stress the significance of motive. The need to discover pupils' purposes for participating in various learning experiences is well-known to teachers. There are numerous methods by which this discovery may be made; however, there are teachers who feel that they lack skill in effective pupil-teacher planning; therefore they fail to provide opportunities for pupils to propose purposes. Without some motivation to identify their purposes, many pupils either are unaware of them or have purposes which may be limited to engaging in an activity merely to meet a requirement of the course.

Since pupils' purposes greatly affect their learning, the teacher is neglecting a valuable aid if these purposes are not discovered by both the learners and the teacher. This does not mean that pupils' goals are entirely satisfactory or comprehensive. The teacher must help pupils evaluate their purposes and must guide them in such a way that they become aware of other worthwhile purposes.

It is true that "successful pupil participation begins at the level at which the group is capable of working . . . Perhaps all that could be expected of a group unaccustomed to cooperative action, and hence unskilled in its technique, would be to plan an occasional trip or a special class activity. From these simple beginnings, group participation might be gradually extended . . ."<sup>1</sup>

A description of a simple plan which might be used in any classroom to gain information about pupils' purposes follows. Briefly stated, it is a device for developing and using a pupil-constructed check list of purposes.

This procedure was demonstrated in a course for student-teachers in the Fifth-Year Program of the Arkansas Experiment in Teacher Education. These students were soon to be engaged in practice teaching. As a teacher, each would have the responsibility to assist pupils in discovering their own objectives, whatever objectives the pupils currently hold and others which can be identified in group discussion with guidance by the teacher. It seemed that a good method for acquainting these student-teachers with a plan which they could use later with their pupils in secondary schools was to lead them to engage in this type of activity themselves. As the procedure was designed for use with student-teachers who were both unskilled in participating in group work as students and inexperienced in guiding group work as teachers, it was purposely made simple.

In the classroom discussion of the value of purposes, several interesting examples were given to illustrate the fact that everyone has some purposes for engaging in various activities. Then there was a request for suggestions of activities which the students thought worthwhile for the group in the next unit of work. These suggestions were listed on the chalk board. They included the following activities: engaging in class discussions, viewing of films, presenting oral reports, writing reports, working in small groups, doing research, taking tests and engaging in social activities with classmates.

Then a question was asked to learn if each one was aware of several purposes of his own for engaging in each of the listed activities. As the scope of the problem was

recognized, the students quickly agreed to the suggestion that it would be advantageous to set up a sufficient number of committees to formulate a separate list of proposed purposes for each activity. The students were told that these suggestions would be compiled to form a check list which would be used by each student to indicate his own purposes. When opportunity was given for students to volunteer for committee membership, seven groups were quickly composed as the names of the students were written on the chalk board beside the activity for which each volunteered.

The next step was that of providing for group work on the purposes. It was done immediately in the classroom. Students were asked to move about so that the members of each committee could get together for work. Had this not been feasible, plans would have been made for groups to meet elsewhere during time not allotted to the class period.

As each student worked with a small group to propose purposes for one class activity, he realized that he had purposes of his own and he found satisfaction both in discovering them as he worked with his classmates and in knowing that the teacher valued his purposes.

With the committee work completed, the lists of proposed purposes were submitted for suggestions from the class and the teacher. Then they were ready to be mimeographed.

At the next class meeting each student was given a copy of the following check list on which he indicated his own purposes for engaging in each of the activities.

#### MY PURPOSES IN PARTICIPATING IN A VARIETY OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

Students working in small groups proposed the statements which have been included. Direction: Encircle the numbers at the left of the statements below which state *your own purposes* in participating in each activity. (Disregard statements that state purposes of which you are hardly aware). In case you have encircled a number, classify your purposes as follows:

At the left in the space provided place the letter:

*P* to indicate purposes of *primary importance*

*S* to indicate purposes of *secondary importance*

*My Purposes in working in small groups*

- 1. To learn techniques needed in working with others.
- 2. To solve problems as a group.
- 3. To observe the values in cooperation.
- 4. To have a feeling of belonging to a group.
- 5. To learn how to be a good leader.
- 6. To develop social skills.
- 7. To learn to express my opinions.
- 8. To learn to weigh the opinions of others.
- 9. To work on problems in which I am especially interested.
- Other Purposes \_\_\_\_\_

*My purposes in participating in class discussion*

- 1. To gain experience in expressing my own ideas.
- 2. To check on information which I have acquired.
- 3. To show interest.
- 4. To make ideas more meaningful both to the group and to myself.
- 5. To show that viewpoints of others are stimulating.
- 6. To discover problems which will motivate me to read my textbook and other sources for information on the subjects discussed.
- 7. To challenge others.
- 8. To satisfy my need to know that my ideas are accepted.
- Other Purposes \_\_\_\_\_

*My purposes in taking tests*

- 1. To review and reorganize information.
- 2. To engage in a learning experience.
- 3. To obtain a grade.
- 4. To find out what I know.
- 5. To improve my ability to reason.
- 6. To know the instructor better.
- 7. To meet a requirement.



- 8. To gain new ideas and establish relationships as I solve problems.

—Other Purposes \_\_\_\_\_

*My purposes in presenting oral reports*

- 1. Improve my ability in oral communication.
- 2. Contribute information exclusive of the textbook.
- 3. To gain skill in group work when the report is based on group findings.
- 4. To gain security within the group.
- 5. To acquire poise in standing before a group.
- 6. To share responsibility for the group's learning.
- 7. To have an opportunity to speak rather than listen.
- 8. To improve skill in research as I prepare the report.
- 9. To make a good impression on the instructor.

—Other Purposes \_\_\_\_\_

*My purposes in doing research*

- 1. To gain information.
- 2. To investigate many viewpoints.
- 3. To read periodicals as well as books.
- 4. To keep posted on current publications.

- 5. To gain skill in the mechanics of research.

—Other Purposes \_\_\_\_\_

*My purposes in looking at and listening to materials of the Audio-Visual Type*

- 1. To enjoy the variety.
- 2. To become acquainted with a problem which is to be studied.
- 3. To compare my ideas with those which are presented.
- 4. To broaden my experience.
- 5. To avoid other classroom activities.

—Other Purposes \_\_\_\_\_

*My purposes in engaging in social activities with classmates*

- 1. To enjoy the activities.
- 2. To have opportunities to know others better.
- 3. To relax and "let off steam".
- 4. To do what is expected of me.
- 5. To learn to take responsibility.
- 6. To develop social competence.
- 7. To learn to get along with others.
- 8. To impress others.

—Other Purposes \_\_\_\_\_

<sup>1</sup> Harold Albery, *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum*. The Macmillan Company, 1953, p. 314-315. Used by permission of the Macmillan Company.

## The Teachers' Page

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### FALLACIOUS ASSUMPTIONS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

A friend of mine, a former Philadelphia school teacher who left teaching to enter the field of city planning, sent me a clipping from a Pontiac, Michigan, newspaper (December 5, 1957), which reported on an address delivered by Nobel prize winner, Dr. Harold C. Urey, at a meeting of the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers. The University of Chicago science professor discussed a number of "fallacious assumptions" which have been dominating American education and which "have been

a major drawback in training scientists". We believe it worthwhile to present these "fallacious assumptions," analyze them, and consider their implications, not only with respect to the training of scientists but as they affect the overall education of our young people. Following are some of Dr. Urey's "fallacious assumptions" that have dominated American education, as reported in the Pontiac newspaper:

"... That the higher the age limit for compulsory education the better. He explained that our entire approach to compulsory education needs to be re-examined because many

youngsters cannot profit from the prolonged attendance now legally required. 'Our schools should not be used as a means of keeping teenage children off the streets, out of the corner poolroom and out of the juvenile courts. A certain amount of productive activity is good for young people,' he said.

"... That all children get the same basic education, regardless of capacity. Because of this fallacy superior children have to adjust their pace to be less capable and learn to be indolent. Urey suggests grouping children on the basis of their intellectual ability.

"... That the purpose of education is to develop personality and not primarily to acquire knowledge.

"... That children should never face a definite test of attainment or be required to face the disappointment of a failure—unless they desire to be athletes."

Upon examination, the first two fallacious assumptions are found to be based on other American assumptions, not fallacious, but logically and ideally growing out of our concept of democracy and its values. As a people, we believe in and are dedicated to the principle that democratic government is the best form of government. We are aware that at times democracy at work may appear less efficient (in terms of the speed of execution of programs of action) than less democratic forms of government. However, we are convinced that in the long run a democratically organized and functioning society is best adapted to guarantee to *all* the people the values we have always prized—liberty, equality, justice, freedom of thought and action, and a continuously rising standard of living. That our democracy has not been functioning fully as we have conceived it in its ideal state we also recognize. This is also natural, and acceptable, so long as it is understood that the goal of a democratic society is to bring that society ever closer to the ideal which it sets up for itself. Historically we *have been moving closer towards rather than away* from the goals of liberty, justice, freedom of thought and action, and a continuously rising standard of living for all the people.

Out of this concept of democracy arises, naturally, the logical deduction that a democratically constituted society will function more effectively if *all* the people who share in both its operations and in its benefits are fully educated to assume the responsibilities that go with democratic citizenship. Preparation of young people for democratic living becomes, therefore, a function of a democratic society. Who more than the schools are the logical agents to assume this responsibility? Hence the trend in American education to increase the years of schooling for every individual. There have, of course, been other factors responsible for the lengthening of the compulsory school age, such as the industrialization of American production which removed the need for child labor; and the unfortunate fact that other agents of society (who in the past had a large role in the overall education and training of young people), particularly the home, have been relinquishing much of their responsibility and foisting it upon the schools.

The assumption that the better educated a person is the better kind of citizen he will make is sound. The fallacy, as Dr. Urey sees it, and there is increasing support for his views, is (1) that the schools are the only agency best suited to provide the essential education and training for effective citizenship; and (2) that compelling every child to attend school (up to the age 16 or 17) will give everyone that education and training we deem so necessary in the development of responsible citizenship. It is true that children are not horses, but if you cannot make a horse drink, even though you may lead him to the water, neither can you make a child learn what you want him to learn, even though you may lead him to school. As a matter of fact, many children cannot even be led to school and made to stay there (let alone drinking of the river of knowledge), as is evidenced by statistics on truancy and cutting of classes.

Many school people have long been aware of this fallacious assumption—that we are furthering the ideal of democracy as out-

lined above—by legally compelling attendance in the traditional type high school of youngsters who do not want to and/or who do not have the native ability to pursue a regular high school program. Inevitably, therefore, the concept of what should constitute a high school education began to change both to meet the changing needs of our society and to adapt courses of study to suit the supposed needs and interests of boys and girls who could not profit by a regular academic program. From time to time, educators, government created commissions, and others interested in the problem formulated goals, aims, objectives, and purposes of secondary education. Command of the fundamental processes, intelligent use of leisure time, vocational competency, effective citizenship, good human relations, adjustment to life, became some of the aims and objectives of secondary education.

In a world of relative peace and harmony where the standard of living is constantly rising, in a world where motor car accidents injure and kill more people than did all the wars put together, in a world where *peace of mind* becomes the goal of the large majority of people, in a world where ten per cent of the people require the care of a psychiatrist and many more could profit from one also, in a world where success is measured more by the kind of car one drives than how much education one has, in short in the kind of world that the people of this country have built for themselves and lived in, in the last fifty years, what is wrong with the aims and objectives of education mentioned above? What is wrong with life-adjustment education for sixty or more per cent of the boys and girls legally enrolled in high school who have neither the ability nor the interest to pursue the traditional type of high school program? What is wrong with a goal that seeks to train young people for effective citizenship? What is wrong in schools trying to educate for intelligent use of leisure time? In developing young people who will be emotionally mature? In training boys and girls to practice good human relations?

We do not believe anything is wrong with these goals if they are being achieved. But, are they? How effective have the schools been in this respect? Are the schools in a position to realize these goals when society at large—the forces at work on the minds of these young people — works counter to these objectives? Moreover, in a world that is not all peace and harmony—at a time when our national survival is at stake—are these goals, desirable as they are, enough?

The fallacy of compulsory school attendance lies not so much in compelling young people to attend school but in our failure—the whole of society's failure, not only the schools' — to meet the *maturing* needs of those adolescent boys and girls for whom the traditional *classroom approach of subject matter teaching* is inadequate. The failure lies also in that in trying to apply relatively the same formula of instruction to all boys and girls—to the willing and capable as well as to the unwilling and incapable—we have neglected in large measure, also, the educational needs of the willing and the able. Part of our failure lies in the fact that we fail to realize that many young people are biologically and psychologically, though not socially, ready for adult ways of living. Some of them want to work and to be productive. They want to earn their own money and to become independent of parental or school domination. Of course, some, principally because of poor home conditions and the wrong values they imbibe from our mass communication media, are not ready for productive work nor for the kind of education we deem necessary for them. As a society we have not allowed many of our young people to assume adult responsibilities because they are not ready to assume them, nor have we provided, by the types of programs offered in our schools, suitable substitutes for them.

Apropos of this aspect of the problem is an article by Kenneth B. Clark, in *The American Child*, "Present Threats To Children and Youth" (November, 1957). Dr. Clark is the Coordinating Psychologist, Northside Cen-



ter for Child Development, Inc. He cites six current threats to young people. We want to discuss the first four, which are related to the subject under discussion.

The first threat grows out of the "increased technological industrialization of our society"—the progressive movement toward automation. The major threat in this connection, as Dr. Clark sees it, is not, as in the past, premature exploitation of young people (child labor) but that young people "will be excluded from that participation in the economy which is essential for the assumption of economic and adult status". Dr. Clark fears that the "vestibule stage of adolescence" (the period of transition to adulthood) will be prolonged to the point where young people will face social and psychological stresses of a serious nature. Added to this technological factor is the fact that because of parallel advances in the medical sciences, more and more older people "may well become the chief competitors of young people in the quest for the remaining places in our industrial economy."

Perhaps Walter Reuther's suggestion of a four-day week is not without its merits—although there would be other problems associated with a four day week. Perhaps also the intelligent use of leisure time—if it can be taught—is a worthwhile objective after all.

The second threat grows out of the first (the prolongation of the period of vestibule adolescence). It is "the abstract threat of a sense of exclusion in that period of their lives that could be a most creative one".

The next statement is very significant:

"It is questionable whether this period of *restless waiting* can be adequately filled for large enough numbers of these young people by *merely increasing the period of compulsory education*." (Italics mine)

We already have too many youngsters in this stage of "restless waiting"—waiting to reach the age when they are legally permitted to go to work, or to enter into the armed services, or to just not go to school. For many young people, this period of restless

waiting is a period also of strife against parental supervision or domination, and a period of rebellion against adult values in general and against authority as represented by the school or other social agencies. Unfortunately, for many, even the reaching of the end of this restless waiting period brings little relief, for there is not always a job waiting for them. Some seek escape into the armed services, and for a large portion of these youngsters, a well ordered and a well disciplined life is frequently a better outlet for their energies than the educational environment of a high school. For some, neither a job, nor one of the branches of the armed services is the answer. The period of restlessness continues and they become problems for the police and our courts.

This vestibule stage is also the period of the beginning of sexual maturation. According to the Kinsey report the middle and late adolescent years represent the most potent sexual period of the individual's life. If we discourage as we do (and we are not arguing against this) freedom of sexual expression, and if at the same time we fail to provide adequate avenues for the sublimation of these energies, then this period of restlessness may well be used for the development of anti-social and delinquent behavior. Again, much of this is now taking place. "Rock and roll" is merely one manifestation of the redirection of the unexpended energies of this period. Crime and delinquency—on the increase—are much more serious manifestations.

The third threat grows out of our mass media of communication and the discrepancy in values they create in young people's minds. A fallacious assumption not mentioned by Dr. Urey is the belief that the schools are or should be the prime transmitters of culture. The fact that the schools are first to be blamed for some of the failings in our young people is reason for the above statement. At any rate, for many youngsters on the secondary school level the schools run a very weak second to our mass media in the transmission of values. Of course, our mass communica-

tion media frequently reflect conditions as they are. "Significant discrepancies between the realities of the lives of the majority of young people (or between the values the schools attempt to inculcate) and the values and aspirations communicated to them by these mass media may well reflect themselves in an intensification of personal problems and in the extension of social instability."

The fourth threat stems from any attempt at reorganization of our present educational philosophy and educational structure that might be guided principally by the exigencies of the present crisis. Dr. Clark did not say this, but others have. Although there is a recognized need to give added emphasis to the education and training of mathematicians, scientists and engineers, there is the danger of evolving an educational system that fails to give a balanced emphasis to all aspect of education—essential in today's world. Returning to Dr. Clark's statement of this threat:

"Among the specific problems in this area are those related to the reorganization of our public educational structure in order to insure each child an equal educational opportunity to develop up to the maximum of his individual potential. . . ."

Herein lies the origin of the second "fallacious assumption" stated by Dr. Urey. In our desire to insure each child an equal educational opportunity we have assumed that each child must be given an equal education. Yet, if we are to recognize this as a fallacious assumption, and if we are to reorganize our educational system to provide the kind of education or training (experiences) best suited to develop the maximum potentialities of all our youth, then, in Dr. Clark's words, there is: "the problem of identifying and stimulating each child to develop those skills which are compatible with his interests and abilities without restricting his abilities and aspirations by preconceptions or rigid classification of the child by inadequately administered or unskillfully interpreted test results. . . ."

Obviously, profound care and skill need be exercised in identifying and classifying young people in terms of their abilities, interests, needs, and potentialities. Although there is this threat of classification by poorly administered or unskilled interpretations of techniques (not only tests), some classification is imperative. Otherwise the fallacious assumptions will continue to operate with harmful effects both to those who are willing and able to learn and to those (in the period of restless waiting) for whom the current programs of study fail to provide the kind of training they need.

The third fallacious assumption stated by Dr. Urey—that the purpose of education is to develop personality and not primarily to acquire knowledge—is one that frequently appears in print, although not in exactly these words. If it is a question of choice—the purpose of education being either the development of personality or the acquisition of knowledge—we can see some logic in the proposition that it is a fallacious assumption that emphasis on personality as a goal of education is preferable to the acquisition of knowledge. But need it be a matter of one or the other? Is it not possible—in fact desirable—for our schools to stress both personality development and the acquisition of knowledge (and skills) as the aims of public education? As we see the issue, the two are interrelated aspects of the same goal—the development of an efficiently functioning individual. The problem really is — what knowledge and what aspects of personality development should the schools stress in their curricula?

With respect to knowledge, we recall a statement made on Ed Murrow's "See It Now" TV program: *One man can hold only a fragment of the world's knowledge. We can only nibble at its edge.* This means, of course, that the schools must be selective with respect to what areas of knowledge they should emphasize in their courses of study. This selectivity must be based in part, on what knowledge the individual can be expected (or should be expected?) to acquire outside the

school; in part, on the interests and the abilities of the students and their particular vocational goals; in part, on what knowledge is universally desirable for each individual to acquire as an effectively functioning citizen, spouse, parent, and wage earner; and in part, on the particular needs of society at any period of its existence. Some of the difficulties in the selection of a well balanced program of studies have resulted from irrational survival of the past—the persistence of areas of knowledge in the curriculum principally because they have always been part of the curriculum of a *well educated person*; powerful pressure groups who influence legislatures or boards of education to make the teaching of certain subjects mandatory; just plain inertia — failure to periodically analyze curricula with the view of eliminating areas of knowledge that are *dead wood*; and the difficulty of curriculum experts to agree on what areas of knowledge are dead wood. Although perfect agreement in the selection of areas of knowledge to be included in a high school program is not to be expected, the criteria stated above might provide a workable basis for selection.

With respect to personality development as a goal of education (along with the

acquisition of knowledge) we do not have in mind superficial aspects of personality as poise, charm and good grooming. Even these, for some boys and girls in high school, might serve as a basis for part of the curriculum. We have in mind more those aspects of personality which have to do with what psychologists call the inner structure of the individual—the degree of his integration, the extent of his emotional maturity, how well balanced are his various drives and how well he can organize these drives and direct them toward individually acceptable and socially approved goals. This is one of the areas where the schools will have to decide how much should be included in the whole school curriculum. It is an area where the home and the world outside the school have a major responsibility, but where many homes and society itself have not been doing an adequate job. The very fact that ten per cent of our people will end up receiving psychiatric care, and the fact that many more could profit from such care are indications that our schools must stress not only the intellectual development of the child (acquisition of knowledge) but also the dynamic or emotional development of the child.

## Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN ECKHAUSER

*Washington Jr. High School, Mt. Vernon, N. Y.*

### NEW MATERIALS

*NATO, Shield of Freedom.* This booklet tells what NATO is, how it works, how it began, and indicates what its future may be. Free, from Amer. Council on NATO, 22 E. 67 St., New York 21, N. Y.

*Prejudiced—How Do People Get That Way.* An explanation of prejudice, and some suggestions for its prevention. 25¢ from Anti-Defamation League, 515 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.

*High School Tax Teaching Materials.* This set contains an analysis of forms used

(especially those for student earnings), teachers' instruction guides, student handbooks and enlarged tax forms for bulletin boards. Free, on request of principal, from Public Information Division, Internal Revenue Service, Washington 25, D. C. Ask for student handbook for each pupil.

*Citizenship Training.* A 48-page manual for use in conjunction with the 1958 Theodore Roosevelt Centennial Observance. Contains information on Theodore Roosevelt's life, lists nine issues for discussion and debate, offers 15-step program of activ-



ities for high school "Free Citizens Teams" to promote responsible citizenship. 35¢ single copy, 25¢ for ten or more, from Theodore Roosevelt Assoc., 28 E. 20 St., New York 3, N. Y.

*Canada.* Included in this package are: 4-color brochure "Vacations Unlimited" describing vacation possibilities in Canada; booklet giving details on hundreds of tours; description of the 33 National Parks; highway map of Canada and northern U. S.; and booklet "How to Enter Canada." Free, from Canadian Government Travel Bureau, Ottawa, Canada.

#### FILMS

*The Precambrian Shield.* 26 min. rental. Natl. Film Board of Canada, 630 Fifth Ave., New York 20, N. Y.

This is a study of forest and rock regions of Canada. Shows mineral deposits, communities, development of cities, lumber camps, Eskimos and Indian life, customs and activities.

*Let's Be Clean and Neat.* 11 min. col. sale/rental. Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago, Ill.

Throughout the day Bobby, Jane, and their parents demonstrate how cleanliness and neatness contribute to family life, social acceptance, good health, and a feeling of well-being.

*Action for Traffic Safety.* 14 min. col. black & white. sale. National Educ. Association, Safety Commission, 1201 16 St., N.W., Washington, D. C.

Tells how schools and the community can work together to develop safety in and around schools.

*Gift to Grow On.* 14 min. col. sale. Film Div., United Nations, New York, N. Y.

Shows a typical UNICEF team in action in Mexico where remote hamlets are reached—springing back to life through eradication of malaria.

*Rubber in Today's World.* 11 min. col. black & white. sale. Coronet Films.

Seen is the history of rubber from its discovery to its importance today as a basic commodity.

*Transportation by Land.* 10 min. black & white. sale. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Text-film Dept., 330 W. 42 St., New York, N. Y.

Points out the vast size and great richness of our country, stressing the fact that transportation is the one factor that prevents our rich resources from being isolated and useless. Treats in detail the organization and role of highway and rail transportation.

*Man in Space.* 35 min. col. lease. Walt Disney Productions, 16mm. Division, 2400 W. Alameda Ave., Burbank, Calif.

Traces rocket development from ancient Chinese weapons to modern missiles. Predicts the establishing of man-made satellites and depicts in detail how man will make his first flight to outer space.

#### FILMSTRIPS

*Japan Today.* 33 fr. silent. black & white. sale. Visual Education Consultants, Inc., 2066 Helena St., Madison 4, Wisc.

Depicts agriculture, industry, geography, government, cities, and education.

*Northwest States.* Regional Study. Set of 9 in color. Sale. Eye Gate House, Inc., 146-01 Archer Ave., Jamaica 35, N. Y.

Shown are historic background, geographic background, lumbering and fishing, agriculture, mining and grazing, power and petroleum, important cities of states of Idaho, Wyoming, Montana, Oregon, and Washington.

*Maps: How to Read and Understand them.* Set of 10 in color. Sale. Eye Gate House, Inc.

The titles are:

WHAT A MAP IS  
ELEMENTS OF A MAP  
MAPS FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES  
USING THE GLOBE  
MAPS FOR THE AIR AGE  
COMMON MAPS  
MAPS OF PHYSICAL FEATURES  
THE GLOBE  
FLAT MAP of a ROUND GLOBE  
MAPS THROUGH THE AGES

## Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

*Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pa.*

*American Minorities, A Textbook of Readings in Intergroup Relations.* Edited by Milton L. Barron. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1957. Pp. xvii, 518. \$6.00.

No other social problem in this country has been more thoroughly analyzed and debated by American scholars than that presented by the inter-relations of the various ethnic, racial, and religious groups in this nation. Yet the student of intergroup relations, until now, has had no ready access to this vast body of research and writing. With this volume, the sociology student for the first time has an invaluable collection of readings drawn from the literature accumulated during the present century on the problems of American minorities.

Designed for use as a text in courses dealing specifically with minority problems, Dr. Barron's collection of readings would serve as an excellent companion piece to any general sociology course. In view of its primary purpose, the organization of *American Minorities* is similar to that of a standard course in intergroup relations. In orderly fashion the book ranges from an introductory section dealing with a general consideration of world-wide majority and minority group relations, through sections concerned with characteristics of race and religion; specific ethnic groups (American Indian, the Negro, etc.); and ethnic and religious stratifications, to a final section which examines and evaluates programs developed to promote intergroup harmony.

The variety of selections Dr. Barron has chosen for *American Minorities* brings together in one volume both the best and the most recent scholarship concerning the minority phenomenon in America. The vast knowledge and experience of such contributors as Otto Klineberg, E. Franklin Frazier, and Louis Wirth, among many others, combine to make this book of readings a magnificent sampling.

*American Minorities* has successfully avoided one weakness characteristic of most textbooks of readings, that is inadequate and confusing editorial comment resulting in a lack of logical exposition. By means of Dr. Barron's exceptional skill as an editor, this volume has the aspect of a continuous and uniform development of the subject. It must also be said that the selections chosen for the book represent not only the best sociological scholarship on this subject of the century, but also the most readable and pungent of that research literature. As a result *American Minorities* provides a pertinent and vividly detailed picture of minority groups in the United States as well as the current status of scholarship dealing with it.

PHYLLIS BATE SPARKS

University of Maryland  
College Park, Maryland

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*Communism on the Decline.* By George C. Guins. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. xviii, 287. \$7.50.

While the author is convinced that the Communist regime is on the way out, he does not predict its imminent collapse, as the title of his book might suggest. On the contrary, he believes that the present dictatorship, sometimes referred to as "the collective leadership," might continue to exploit the Russian masses for an indefinite period through its policies of coercion, intimidation, and persuasion. But it is ultimately doomed to failure. Instead of establishing a classless society by abolishing the exploitation of man by man, as it has ceaselessly promised to do, it has in fact created a monstrous state with an enormous bureaucracy as well as "a new privileged group and sharp contrasts between the wealth of

the few and the poverty of the masses." (p. 3). Even Lenin would undoubtedly "be stupefied if he should rise from his tomb to meet Soviet marshals in their splendid uniforms, to visit his successors in their luxurious country-houses, or to appear in the restaurants Ararat or Argivi, or the hotel-bars and beauty salons in the GUM (State Department Stores) in front of the Kremlin." (p. 167).

The author is willing to concede that the regime has had some success in the fields of heavy industry, armaments, aviation, and atomic energy. But this achievement is offset by a deplorable lag in other areas of economic activity, particularly in agriculture and consumer goods. To stimulate the production of food and consumer items, the Party leaders have found "it necessary to admit private initiative or at least furnish directors of enterprises greater autonomy." (p. 270). Even so, the author contends that the prospects for improvement are hopeless, unless the whole system is reorganized. But the Party leaders are afraid of such reorganization, because it would weaken and eventually undermine their political control. They are desperately determined not to relinquish any of their power.

The greater part of the book is devoted to a searching analysis of Soviet life and society, including literature and the arts. Everywhere the author finds varying degrees of dissatisfaction and disillusionment among the people. Clearly, the dictatorship is not satisfying their basic needs while its repeated promises of a better day only increase their distrust. There are privileged classes, to be sure, but the number of discontented is far more numerous. The peasants and workers have no enthusiasm for the regime. Thus the Soviet army, which consists mainly of individuals from these groups, is not reliable.

In view of the coming disintegration of the Communist government, the peoples of the West "must wage their own peaceful counter-offensive in order to aid in the eventual disappearance of communism and not

in its continued existence." (p. 275). To spread anti-communist propaganda among the Russian people is not enough, since they are already fully aware of the inadequacies of the present regime. It is much more important to provide them with constructive ideas and help on how they can organize their economic life once communism is liquidated.

In writing this interesting and thoughtful appraisal of Soviet developments, the author has familiarized himself with the standard books on the U.S.S.R. In addition, he has made extensive use of Soviet journals and newspapers. Whether one agrees with his conclusions or not, the reader will obtain a deeper insight into the fundamental changes now taking place in the U.S.S.R.

RICHARD H. BAUER

University of Maryland

College Park, Maryland

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*Parker on Police.* By William H. Parker. Springfield, Illinois: Thomas, C. C., 1957. Pp. xi, 235. \$4.75.

One of the most distinguished members of the International Chiefs of Police, William H. Parker of Los Angeles, discloses blunt truths about adult and juvenile delinquencies rampant in current American behavior.

"Crime in the United States today is increasing at a more rapid rate than the population!"

In his new book, *Parker on Police*, he strikes at organized crime, the Black Hand, and the Communist fifth column, which is greater in number and strength than most people realize.

"Drastic legislative action is imperative," he warns, "if democracy expects to survive."

"The United States still is experimenting in a form of free government. This experiment is far from being concluded."

"A nation can retain self government only so long as the bulk of its citizens voluntarily and willingly comply with the regulations promulgated to guide their behavior."

The public in America is actually curbing law enforcement.



Such decisions as the exclusionary rule which lets convicts go free on stupid technicalities is not giving the police an even chance to rout criminals.

Chief Parker shows incredible courage, forthrightness, and sense of duty in one of the most difficult assignments anyone could have.

"Police work at all levels anywhere in the world is hard work," he admits. "Unlike private industry we do not deal with tangible products which can be cleverly fashioned and neatly boxed. We have to do with human behavior, a cosmic riddle which mortal man has never solved."

He takes a searching look at crime let loose today and asks: "Are we worthy of survival?"

If organized crime — thefts, narcotics, prostitution — exists in any city, it is because someone locally profits. Crime pays and pays well!

"Unless you get in back of your police," he points out, "and give them support and add some dignity and social status to the job, then with this crime wave will go your democracy!"

The full blame is on the ever growing emphasis all over the world upon materiality with less and less regard for moral and spiritual values.

J. Edgar Hoover, Director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, adds:

"The annual cost of crime to our nation is greater than twenty billion dollars. The broken lives and moral degradation are beyond estimate."

Chief Parker says of America:

"This nation was created by a people with iron in their spines, with belief in their souls, with hope in their hearts, a group of people that moved into a wilderness and worked from sunrise to sunset to build, construct, and to progress."

Must it have been in vain?

Must democracy perish?

Do we deserve annihilation by the criminal scourge, by our enemies, by the hydrogen bomb?

"We profess to be a God-fearing nation," writes Chief Parker.

His style is terse. His words are simple and heartfelt. His only interest — like that of Raymond E. Clift in "A Guide to Modern Police Thinking" — is to safeguard the population.

Yet, where is the man who dares look up to his creator and pretend absolution?

"The leadership we require in this compelling return to fundamental virtues must lie among those men who have been privileged to understand the true relationship between God and man."

By the grace of God, any sincere and honest person may claim to that relationship.

ANNE BISHOP

Hollywood, California

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*The Seed Is Sown.* By Otilie Boetzke. New York: Greenwich Book Publishers, 1957. Pp. 152. \$2.75.

A historical novel is generally understood to be a novel whose main characters are fictitious but whose setting is laid over a noted historical event with some historical minor characters. A fictionalized biography, on the other hand, takes a historical figure as its protagonist and reconstructs his detailed circumstances. Both depend for their appeal on color, suspense, and action.

This book, though neither the one nor the other, claims to be both. On the outside of the jacket it is called a "historical novel"; on the inside flap it becomes a "fictionalized biography." It has no color, no suspense, and practically no action.

It is a bad book about a good man. Its subject, Dom Pedro II of Brazil, was commendable as monarchs go. He married without love "for the sake of the state" and yet was kind to his wife. He tried to bargain with Republicans, wrote sonnets, and favored the freeing of slaves. But the book is a mere jumble of incidents thrown together with little regard for chronology and less for the King's English. The author is said to have taught modern languages at the University of Washington, Seattle. It is difficult

to comprehend what languages they could have been, for almost every page of her book is marred with clumsy verbal repetitions, dangling participles, faulty parallelisms, burdensome redundances, vague references, fuzzy clausal structures, and other stylistic blunders. The dialogue is stiff, the narrative dull and colorless, the situations flimsy and artificial. All that can be said for the historical element is, the anachronisms show it to be quite fictionalized.

FRANK GOODWYN

State Teachers University  
Courtland, New York

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*An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education.* By D. J. O'Connor. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. vii, 148. \$3.75.

There has been no end of the books on educational philosophy. Hence we must be thankful to O'Connor for giving us an exceptional work which, easily, stands out from the flood. It relates the intellectual revolution of the last 4 decades to the philosophy of education. In doing so, this little work provides a simple explanation and illustration of what philosophy can (and cannot) do for educational thinking. In this way, it offers a useful introduction to philosophy which is directed to the needs and interests of practising teachers and of students of education in training colleges and universities. And only those topics are discussed which are directly relevant to educational theory or practice and they are treated in an elementary way which does not presuppose any knowledge of philosophy. The treatment is focused around 6 chapters: Philosophy and Education; The Nature of Philosophy; The Justification of Value Judgments; Theories and Explanations; What is an Educational Theory? and Some Questions of Morals and Religion.

The author should be complimented for making good use of several American works covering this field; this must be especially appreciated for the English authorities are well-known for their frequent deliberate (or just stupid) policy of ignoring all academic

contributions from the "American wilderness." There are, however, some weak spots in his treatment of social sciences. One would disagree that "the history of the social sciences is a short one" (p. 98). What has happened to sociology, and educational sociology? Conversely, O'Connor seems to be too impressed with the outmoded idea that psychology is "the thing" as far as education is concerned.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport  
Bridgeport, Connecticut

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*Insight, A Study of Human Understanding.*

By Bernard J. F. Lonergan. New York: The Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. xxx, 785. \$10.00.

Professor Lonergan (Gregorian University, Rome) intends in this work to give an "insight into insight." Such a statement will appear to be an oversimplification only to those who lack the quality or condition subsumed by the title. They — among others — are the readers to whom this book is addressed. It is doubtful, however, if many of these will be able to understand the professor's argument in the eight hundred pages through which he labors for their enlightenment. Thus, *Insight* becomes a volume for the specialist — the metaphysician rather than the mathematician or scientist, however.

Yet, there is much here that can appeal to, and be understood by, the average teacher or layman. Consider the following: "In the ideal detective story the reader is given all the clues yet fails to spot the criminal. He may advert to each of the clues as it arises. He needs no further clues to solve the mystery. Yet he can remain in the dark for the simple reason that reaching the solution is not the mere apprehension of any (one) clue, not the mere memory of all, but a quite distinct activity of organizing intelligence that places the full set of clues in a unique explanatory perspective."

Of course, this is merely the beginning (as is the recounting of the hoary old story about

Archimedes' bath). Nevertheless, the facility so enjoyed by Sherlock Holmes, Arsene Lupin, and the Wizard of Syracuse offers a key to the preliminary understanding of "insight." Or should we say "insight" rather than key? Because when we have used the word "key" an understanding of insight has already been premeditated. Really, there is much more here than seems involved at first thought. It is an exciting search and reading *Insight* may become such a "key" to itself for the "better than average" reader. The specialist will be concerned with Father Lonergan's dialectic and conception of reality.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

Montana State University  
Missoula, Montana

*Our American Government.* By Stanley E. Dimond and Elmer F. Pflieger. New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1957. Pp. 1957. Pp. 608.

Undoubtedly, this refreshing textbook will serve as an excellent guide to our young citizens in the development of a foundation for an understanding of our national, state, and local governments. In addition to this the students will find noteworthy sections devoted to the United States as a world leader—including information about international organizations like The United Nations. Other features, such as present day government problems (housing, education, agriculture, crime, social problems, etc.), are well presented.

The many up-to-date pictures, charts, and cartoons, and the easy flowing style and realistic approach of the authors should prove particularly appealing to the high school student body.

Teachers will find the study questions, civic words and phrases, ideas for discussion, things to do, and the suggested readings a considerable aid in activating student interest.

IRENE A. HUBIN

Ho-Ho-Kus Public School  
Ho-Ho-Kus, New Jersey

*The Honorable Eighty-Eight.* By James Barbar. New York: Vantage Press, 1957. Pp. 124. \$2.75.

This small book aims to acquaint the layman with a proper understanding of the functions of the U. S. Supreme Court and give him some knowledge of the lives of the justices who have sat on that bench. Second, it attempts to show how the Presidential office, through its power to appoint the Justices, can create a distinguished, uninfluenced and independent membership or one that may be responsive to, or at least favorably inclined toward, the executive point of view. Third, it seeks to bring together a large amount of material on the Court that may be used for reference by teachers and students of American history, government, and constitutional law.

Roughly, the work has accomplished its aim. It offers nothing particularly new; but what it presents is accurate. Basically, here we have a little reference work which should be found in all libraries.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport  
Bridgeport, Connecticut

*Prehistoric Man.* By A. Leroi-Gourhan. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. ix, 119. \$4.75.

The field covered by the Director of the Museum of Natural History (Paris) is one of the most neglected ones in the United States, since, roughly speaking, it is not "practical." Yet, the area of archaeology and physical anthropology has seen a brilliant development in Europe, as demonstrated by the present work. Here the author relies upon the most recent techniques and discoveries in the fields of archeology and related sciences, and offers us a fascinating composite picture of our earliest ancestors in a new light: not as savage brutes cowering in barren caves but as sentient creatures whose continuous course toward mastery of an adverse environment is an inspiring testimony of the dignity of mankind. This is offered within the framework of the chap-



ters covering the method of prehistory, climate and nature, prehistoric man, the works of prehistoric man, the birth of the tool, the first artists, the last primitives, the age of the reindeer, how the people lived during the age of the reindeer, and the end of prehistoric times.

All in all, the work is an admirable introduction to an entrancing subject worthy to be studied by any intelligent person. In fact, the pictures (photographs, reproductions and drawings) are worth the price of "admission" alone.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport  
Bridgeport, Connecticut

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*American Civilization, A History of The United States.* By Wesley M. Gewehr and members of the Department of History, University of Maryland. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957. Pp. 587. \$6.75.

The title of this, the fourteenth of the McGraw-Hill Series in History, is slightly misleading. The three authors, thirteen contributors, editor, and special assistant have produced an admirable history of the United States. They have not given us a study of American Civilization as the title suggests.

The thirty chapters lead us from "The European Heritage" to "American Democracy in Crisis 1945 to 1955" in the traditional textbook pattern. Yet this is not just another traditional textbook in United States history. The unique flavor of the volume arises from the degree of personal interpretation and literary flair that has been kept. The book evolved from the American history course taught at the University of Maryland as a part of the American Civilization program. Its pages suggest the classroom lecture, with a tone of lively interest, personal concern on the part of the author that the material be understood and interpreted. This reflection of the authors as alert and earnest teachers permeates the book and raises it above the level of the humdrum pedantic textbook.

To pick at random an example of this lively style, the section on page 162 headed "The Frontier Experience" begins as follows:

"From Puritan and indentured servant to Mormon and bearded miner, from Bacon's Rebellion to Vigilance Committee—it is time to consider the impact of this whole frontier experience upon the American character and American institutions. If Frederick Jackson Turner was right, it was the most significant experience in American history; from any viewpoint, it has left its enduring mark."

This history, designed for use in a required course at the college sophomore level, should be eminently successful. It is at once an enthusiastic and a thoughtful treatment of America's story.

The extras deserve special mention. A final chapter synthesizing the course of American history, a well-chosen list of titles for general reading, and an appendix much richer than most in its wealth of reference material, all enhance the value of this text.

DONALD W. ROBINSON

Carlmont High School  
Belmont, California

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*Citadel, Market and Altar: Emerging Society.* By Spencer Heath. Baltimore: The Science of Society Foundation, 1957. Pp. 223. \$4.00.

The author portrays in exceedingly general terms an "outline of Socionomy" which he terms "The New Natural Science of Society." This treatise concerns the inter-relations, actual or potential, among government (citadel), business (market), and religion (altar). Actually altar includes more than religion in that it is an all encompassing social structure embracing the elements of intellectuality, creativity, spirituality, recreation and others. He exhorts us to accept as the absolute good a way of life best represented in pre-Norman England; to leave government functions to the social structure of the market and to restrict the government's functions to maintaining intra- and

extra-community order. The altar will provide a means whereby men will exercise their excess of energy, obtained by diminishing governments' role in our lives and concurrently increasing efficiency by business methods, to creative and spiritual purposes. Socionomy, "this new child of the altar," will open new vistas in its application and would help obtain "The Utopian Dream."

The author chose to ignore modern researches and comments which relate to the social structures he deals with. In the reviewer's opinion, his treatise would have benefitted if he had used national census reports to assist him in presenting objective evidence and in the development of his ideas. His ignorance of social scientists' contributions concerning the social relevance of reciprocity among men, the social aspects of exchange (e.g.), Malinowski's classic portrayal of the Kula ring, the social (non-economic) role of property (e.g., the property-destroying potlach among the Northwest Coast peoples), land as a social and prestige good (in some farming areas) limits the effectiveness of his book. Inasmuch as property, exchange and reciprocity hold cardinal positions in this work these ideas would have received support, obtained clarification and distinction or been modified by use of some standard references.

Altar would provide the norms of living and establish the climate wherein men would serve one another. His comments on land use indicate, to this sociologist-reviewer, a perhaps independent arrival at the idea of vertical integration which currently may be witnessed in American agriculture.

The author indicates that this exposition of his system does not include specific recommendations for application. It would be at the point of implementing this system that probable unintended and unexpected strains would appear; strains which his system does not account for or allude to. One may obtain rather clear expressions of doubt concerning applications of these ideas in the Foreword written by John Chamberlain. In the reviewer's judgment *Citadel, Market and*



This is a text that should be read  
by all young Americans —

## AMERICAN PROBLEMS TODAY

Second Edition  
ROBERT RIENOW

— for here is a forceful and unbiased presentation of the problems that confront all of us today as citizens of the United States. Stress is laid on the organized group as an effective force in the processes of democracy and on the role of the individual in such groups.

In this new revision you will find such topics as water conservation, automation, development and control of nuclear energy. There are many new illustrations and up to date charts and graphs. A Teacher's Manual accompanies the text. (For grades 11-12)

*D. C. Heath and Company*

SALES OFFICES: Englewood, N. J.,  
Chicago 16, San Francisco 5, Atlanta 3,  
Dallas 1 HOME OFFICE: Boston 16

*Altar* does not include testable, verifiable socionomic propositions which would be required for a new scientific discipline.

WAYNCE C. ROHRER

University of Maryland  
College Park, Maryland

### HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS

#### PAMPHLETS

Rinehart and Company, 232 Madison Avenue, New York 16, New York, has recently published the following: *Darwinism: Reaction or Reform?* By Bert James Loewenberg. Price .75 cents.

*Soviet Economic Progress: Because of or in Spite of the Government?* By Ellsworth Raymond. Price .75 cents.

*Getting the Most Out of Discussion. A Guide for Participants.* By R. E. Lee, American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11, Illinois.

*A U. N. Peace Force?* By William R. Frye, Public Affairs Pamphlet Number 257. Price .25 cents. Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16, New York.

#### ARTICLES

"Facts and Issues in Merit Schedules," by Hazel Davis, *The Journal of Teacher Education*, Volume XIII, June, 1957.

"What the Gifted Need is Inspirational Teaching," by Joseph Leese, *New York State Education*, Volume XLIV, June, 1957.

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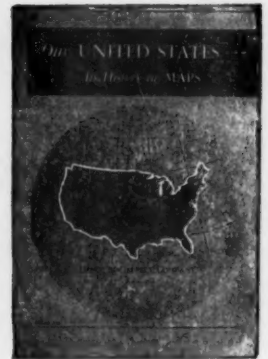
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